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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR JULY 1944

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Results of International Labor Conference, April–May 1944

By CARTER GOODRICH and JOHN GAMBS¹

THE Twenty-Sixth Conference of the International Labor Organization was held in Philadelphia, April 20 to May 12, 1944. To this meeting came the official delegates of 41 nations, including representatives of each of the governments in exile. There were delegates from most of the republics of Latin America, from Great Britain, and from all of the British Dominions. Delegations came from China, India, and from certain colonial areas. Three neutrals, Sweden, Turkey, and Switzerland, which had not sent delegations to the last I. L. O. Conference held in New York in 1941 were present in Philadelphia. The Soviet Union was not represented. Delegates spoke of this absence with regret and expressed the hope that that nation might see its way to return to the Organization.

The United States Government delegation was headed by Hon. Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor, and Senator Elbert Thomas of Utah. Like the United States, most countries having a full complement of delegates sent either a Cabinet minister or a member of the legislative chamber, or the head of the labor department, or a combination of two or three such persons. The membership of the Conference included—as do all I. L. O. Conferences—leaders of industry and labor. American industry was represented by Henry I. Harriman, and labor by Mr. Robert Watt.²

The delegates who came together in Philadelphia were fully conscious that they were meeting at a critical time in the history of the world. Most of them held responsible positions related directly to the war effort of the United Nations. Among them were men who had come out of Europe in recent months as leaders and spokesmen of the underground movement. They knew they should be at their posts

¹ Mr. Goodrich is Labor Commissioner and Mr. Gambs is Adviser on International Labor Relations, both of the U. S. Department of Labor.

² The United States delegation consisted of the following: The Government delegates were the Hon. Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor, and Hon. Elbert D. Thomas, Senator from Utah; substitute delegates were Hon. Adolf A. Berle, Jr., Assistant Secretary of State, and Carter Goodrich, United States Labor Commissioner; advisers were Arthur Altmeyer, Thomas C. Blaisdell, Jr., Maj. Gen. John H. Hildring, Isador Lubin, A. F. Hinrichs, Frieda S. Miller, Otis E. Mulliken, Thomas C. O'Brien, Margaret Chase Smith (Member of Congress), William H. Stead, Charles W. Taussig, and Daniel W. Tracy; substitute advisers were Clara M. Beyer, Maj. John Boettiger, Ralph J. Bunche, John S. Gambs, Maj. Ernest A. Gross, and Forrest H. Shuford. The employers' delegation was headed by Henry I. Harriman; Eric Johnston was substitute delegate; advisers were Henry S. Dennison, Marion Folsom, Paul Hoffman, Clarence G. McDavitt, Charles Redding, and Robert West, and the substitute adviser was Howard Myers. The workers' delegation was headed by Robert J. Watt; advisers were Harry W. Fraser, William Green, Mgr. Francis J. Haas, Marion Hedges, George Meany, Florence Calbert Thorne, and Matthew Woll. The secretary of the delegation was John S. Gambs.

when the operations of liberation began; and the air was charged with the sense of the impending invasion. They also knew, however, that plans must be made in advance, if the peace settlement is to be the occasion for a concerted advance in social policy worthy of the ideals for which the United Nations are now fighting.

The press in the United States and Great Britain (and perhaps elsewhere, though full reports are not yet available) treated the Conference as an event of historic importance. Although there were at Philadelphia real disputes and disagreements, these occurred more often on questions of procedure than on divergence of view as to the goal to be attained. In a free and untrammelled assembly representing more than 40 nations, some of them with territories occupied by the Germans or the Japanese, with spokesmen of employers and workers not bound by government instructions, differences of viewpoint are expected not only to appear but also to find open expression.

For each item of the agenda the delegates had before them well-considered and carefully drafted proposals made by the Office of the International Labor Organization. The proposals put forward by the secretariat could not be adopted until they had run the gantlet of examination by representatives of governments, employers and workers, in committee and sometimes in subcommittee. Everything the Conference did required full debate—often in several languages—and patient negotiations. Nevertheless, the Conference reached many decisions either unanimously or by overwhelming majorities.

"Poverty Anywhere Constitutes a Danger to Prosperity Everywhere"

The first two items on the agenda were: Future policy, program, and status of the International Labor Organization; and Recommendations to the United Nations for present and post-war social policy.

These were the two most important items of the agenda. Not all of the participants had clearly foreseen how much the two items were dependent on each other, but after discussion in plenary sessions and after residual sub-items had been assigned to subcommittees, a pattern appeared, composed of three elements: First, substantial success in the war against want and unemployment was recognized as an important goal of the United Nations. Wherever low levels of living exist locally they must be regarded as endangering prosperity and security everywhere, for prosperity is indivisible. Second, the sinews of the I. L. O., as international watchdog to rouse the world when poverty and unemployment threaten, must be strengthened. Third, human beings are deemed not to be the creatures of fate; men, deriving their strength from their moral aspirations, are able to determine for themselves whether they will live in want and fear, or whether they will be able steadily to develop a community life based on high social objectives.

THE PHILADELPHIA DECLARATION

The first major decision of the Conference was the adoption of the Declaration of the Aims and Purposes of the International Labor Organization, which has become known as the Declaration of Phila-

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delphia. It was an attempt to restate, in the light of 25 years' experience and of the great emergency, the fundamental objectives of the I. L. O. It reaffirmed the statement in the preamble to the I. L. O. Constitution that "Lasting peace can be established only if it is based on social justice." In the application of this principle, the terms of the Philadelphia Declaration showed significant differences in emphasis. The 1919 preamble declared that "the failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions of labor is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve conditions of labor in their own countries." The Declaration of 1944, in simpler and more striking terms, declared that "poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere." The I. L. O. constitution embodied "the principle of freedom of association." To this the Declaration added the principle of labor-management cooperation in "the continuous improvement of productive efficiency" and "the preparation and application of social and economic measures." The constitution established the tripartite structure of the I. L. O., under which each State is represented by worker, employer, and governmental delegates. The declaration noted that this "continuous and concerted international effort" on the part of "the representatives of workers and employers enjoying equal status with those of governments" is a part of "the war against want."

The most significant advance recorded in the new declaration was the recognition that the raising of labor standards is not a matter of the correction of a series of specific abuses but part of this general "war against want," which is a fundamental objective of public policy. "The central aim of international and national policy" must be the attainment of conditions under which all men everywhere may pursue "their material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity." Economic and financial measures, therefore, as well as others, "should be judged in this light." They should be accepted if they will promote, and rejected if they will hinder, the achievement of this purpose. From this it follows, according to the Declaration, that—

It is a responsibility of the International Labor Organization to examine and consider all international economic and financial policies and measures in the light of this fundamental objective.

The nature of this responsibility should be clearly understood. It is advisory and not administrative. Its concern is with the general direction, not with technical details. The I. L. O. is not and should not be an administrative agency in the economic field. In the words of the delegate from India, Sir Samuel Runganadhan, the International Labor Organization "must be the watchdog in the world of international policy in the interest of social policy and full employment." Its duty, as other delegates put it, developing that metaphor, is "to bark when things go wrong," when policies of governments or of other international institutions fail to promote "full employment and the raising of standards of living." To this task the I. L. O. brings the strength which comes from its position as the one official agency through which labor and employers take a direct part in the framing of international policy.

SOCIAL PROVISIONS IN THE PEACE SETTLEMENT

The next step taken in the development of a program of mitigating want by the operation of the social will in the international sphere, through the instrumentality of a strengthened I. L. O., was the adoption of a series of related resolutions. Unlike the Declaration, which was adopted by acclamation with few alterations of the draft originally proposed, this group of resolutions was the result of long (and often heated) committee and subcommittee discussion. The committee charged with these tasks, the most difficult and possibly the most important of the Conference, was presided over by the United States Secretary of Labor.

Miss Perkins herself struck the keynote of an important part of this work by announcing at the beginning of the Conference that the United States delegation would recommend that—

The United Nations should agree in principle that the maintenance within each nation of high levels of employment and national income is a matter of international concern.

In accordance with this proposal, the resolution on "Social Provisions in the Peace Settlement" began by putting forward a set of principles which, it declared, are "appropriate for inclusion in a general or special treaty between nations." It reaffirmed the Declaration of Philadelphia and stated that the "opportunity for useful and regular employment," the raising of standards of living, and other similar matters "are of international concern and should be among the social objectives of international as well as national policy." It added provisions to carry out an American suggestion that the nations should "give information annually to the I. L. O. Conference in regard to the degree of achievement of the social goals they agree to set for themselves." In the plainest possible language, the proposed agreement declared that "each government recognizes its duty to maintain a high level of employment."

This principle was close to the center of the Conference discussions. As one commentator said in discussing them—

To maintain full employment in the United States is unmistakably an American interest; if we do not, we shall suffer deeply among ourselves. Yet if we do maintain it * * * we shall be doing the first, most necessary thing to meet our international responsibility for a prosperous world economy."³

Unemployment here means, as Conference speakers (particularly Mr. Beasley of Australia) indicated, that mills shut down in England and mines in South America, and that Australians and New Zealanders cannot sell their wool. Similarly, unemployment and low purchasing power abroad mean that United States cotton growers cannot sell their crops and that automobile factories in Michigan shut their doors. Indeed, one of the main issues of dispute at the Conference was whether nations in addition to recognizing their duties to maintain employment should contract with each other to initiate and carry into execution domestic policies that will induce full employment. The same resolution proposed that the peace settlement should be taken as an opportunity to obtain international agreement on certain minimum labor standards by a process more rapid than the piecemeal

³ Walter Lippmann, in *New York Herald Tribune*, May 20, 1944.

ratification of individual Conventions or labor treaties. As Miss Perkins said to the Conference:

Whenever international economic arrangements are being consummated, whether it be a matter of international loans, or the redistribution of shipping, or an agreement with reference to air transport, the negotiators should bear constantly in mind the possibility of utilizing those negotiations and instruments as a means of improving labor standards, and the I. L. O. should be in a position to make appropriate suggestions to these other bodies.

The resolution recommended that "throughout the peace settlement the United Nations should, wherever appropriate, include provisions for labor standards." Some of these, it suggested, might be taken from existing I. L. O. Conventions, and it pointed to negotiations regarding dependent territories and regarding shipping as among the cases in which such provisions would be applicable. To carry out this policy, it recommended that "the Governing Body should appoint a consultative committee on labor provisions in the peace settlement" and "the United Nations should make full use of this committee."

RESOLUTION ON ECONOMIC POLICIES

The Philadelphia Declaration asserted the responsibility of the I. L. O. "to examine and consider" economic policies. The Conference began to apply this principle by adopting a resolution on "Economic Policies for the attainment of Social Objectives." This resolution stated that, to attain the social objectives implicit in the Atlantic Charter such as full employment, a greater measure of social security, and the resumption of peaceful economic progress, certain policies should guide national and international action.

On the national plane—and it should be noted that this section was drafted in large part by the employers' group of the United States delegation—the resolution called attention to the wide variety of economic problems facing the nations of the world. In some cases ordinary economic life has virtually ceased under the occupation of the enemy; in other cases the peace economy is unrecognizable in the current drive for war production. Plans for reconstruction, expansion, reconversion must follow the special requirements of each country. Depending on their needs, nations must realize the importance of an orderly and efficient demobilization program; the prompt termination of contracts and settlement of claims; the prompt determination of policy on the peacetime uses of government-owned plants, equipment, and surplus materials; the retention of such controls as are required by shortages of commodities and productive equipment; the adjustment of tax systems to encourage reconversion and adoption of fiscal programs which tend to decrease the dangers of inflation or deflation; the development of an effective system of financing; the maintenance of the volume of demand through fiscal or monetary measures and public works; and measures to discourage monopoly, to provide incentives for engaging in economic activity, to maintain high wages, and to improve collective-bargaining procedures.

On the international plane the delegates took note of the important complementary work being done by the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, urged the creation of a permanent international instrument as recommended by the Conference on Food and Agriculture, and recognized that a satisfactory international monetary system is essential to the full development of happy economic

relations between nations. The so-called "Economic Resolution" went on to recommend the establishment of appropriate international machinery for the purpose of promoting the international movement of capital, suggested the possibility of including, in the terms under which development works are financed, provisions regarding working conditions. Commercial policies should provide for the steady expansion of world trade on a multilateral basis. There should be a free market of raw materials, insured in part by policy-making bodies that include both producers and consumers, and at the same time workers and small producers should receive a fair return. Orderly migration should be established—a matter in which the I. L. O. is prepared to furnish technical assistance. Finally, nations need to consult frequently with each other, either through the I. L. O. or through other technical international organizations, if their policies in the economic field are to be consistent and fruitful.

THE I. L. O. AND OTHER INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The Conference realized that the I. L. O. must be strengthened if it was to carry out the aims of the Philadelphia Declaration and of these resolutions and that its methods of work and its relationships with other organizations must be reconsidered. It therefore authorized the Governing Body to take measures to bring about close cooperation and full interchange of information between the I. L. O. and other public organizations, and it asked the Governing Body "to appoint a committee as soon as possible to consider the future constitutional development of the Organization" and to report on its recommendations at the next session of the Conference. In setting the terms of reference of this committee, the Conference indicated its opinion that the work of the Organization should be strengthened by a further development of specialized activities, industry by industry and region by region. It asked early action for the creation of a series of industrial committees first proposed by the British Minister of Labor, Ernest Bevin, which should do for some of the other great world industries what the I. L. O.'s Joint Maritime Commission has done in the case of shipping. On the proposal of the representatives of Iraq, Egypt, Iran, Turkey, Greece, and Yugoslavia, the Conference adopted a resolution calling for a regional conference for the Near and Middle East, to be held as soon as practicable; and it endorsed a similar proposal, supported by the Chinese and Indian delegations, for an Asiatic conference on social security. Similarly, the Acting Director declared that the time was close at hand for a resumption of the series of conferences of American members of the Organization. Finally, since the Conference realized that the making of "the over-all pattern of international institutions" was already in process and might not wait until the studies of the proposed constitutional committee were completed, it asked the Governing Body "to appoint representatives with power to negotiate * * * with international authorities on behalf of the Organization concerning any constitutional questions which at any time required immediate action."

These resolutions were adopted on the closing day of the Conference. On the following day the Governing Body appointed both the constitutional committee and the negotiating group. It formed also a new committee on employment, made plans for a September meeting

of the Joint Maritime Commission, and adopted a budget for 1945 of 11,600,000 Swiss francs (about \$2,500,000)—a sum which, though small in relation to those planned for other United Nations agencies, is more than double that of 1944 and somewhat larger than the figures of pre-war years. These were the first steps toward the carrying out of the decisions of the Conference and toward the fulfillment of the purposes indicated by President Roosevelt when he received the delegates after the Conference and said to them:

You have wisely provided for the further development and reorganization of the International Labor Organization so that it may be broadened and strengthened to carry out these social objectives, and at the same time integrated on a cooperative basis with whatever new agency or agencies are created by the United Nations.

Problems of the European Continent

The Philadelphia Conference held its discussions a few weeks before the launching of the invasion to liberate the occupied nations of Europe. The great impending event was in the mind of every delegate and perhaps most of all in the minds of those who represented the nations which stood on the threshold of liberation. It was natural therefore that the Conference should be concerned with the problems of these countries and with those of the occupation of enemy countries, and that this range of questions should be debated with especial emotion.

By decision of the Governing Body one of the questions placed on the agenda was "Social Policy in the Territory of Axis Countries Occupied by the Forces of the United Nations." With the fullest approval of the American authorities, this item had been phrased broadly enough to permit frank discussion of the labor problems encountered by Allied Military Government in the occupation of Italy. For this reason Maj.-Gen. John H. Hilldring, Director of the War Department's Civil Affairs Division, and two of his aides had been made members of the United States delegation.

The Office of the I. L. O. proposed a series of measures for liquidation of totalitarian "labor front" organizations, encouragement of free trade-unions and collective bargaining, and adaptation and restoration of systems of labor administration and social legislation. A principal agent for the carrying out of this program was to be a qualified United Nations Labor Commissioner, appointed for each territory to be occupied and responsible to the occupation authorities for the administration of a wide range of labor questions. Under these proposals, the Commissioner would be assisted by an Advisory Board which would include "citizens of the Axis territory concerned, chosen as representing the workers of that territory"—at first to be appointed by the Commissioner but later to be nominated by a reconstituted free trade-union movement—and "persons with experience of trade-union organization, to be appointed after consultation with the principal international trade-union organizations and the trade-union movements of the leading United Nations."

The Conference refused either to adopt these proposals or to make recommendations on the problems of occupation. In the subcommittee in which the issue was debated, numerous representatives of the occupied countries expressed the opinion that the I. L. O. proposals were unduly "soft" in character and would result in the restoration of

favorable working conditions in Germany before they could be restored in the territories of Germany's victims. The spokesman for the British Government declared that it was useless to carry on the discussion, in the absence of one of the three great United Nations immediately concerned. The same view was advanced even more strongly by Sir Walter Citrine, General Secretary of the British Trades Union Congress and adviser to the British workers' delegate, who questioned the right of the I. L. O. to concern itself with questions of this sort. Other workers, however, notably United States workers' delegate, Robert Watt, insisted with equal warmth that it was very much the business of the I. L. O. to give advice on this matter, and particularly that it must insist that every possible effort must be made to bring about the revival of free trade-unions after the defeat of the Axis countries. The Conference decided to refer the question, without recommendation, to the Governing Body for further consideration.

A somewhat similar spirit was shown in the Conference decision on the social-insurance rights of displaced persons. On this point, the International Labor Office proposed for adoption an ingeniously drafted Convention or treaty, providing for the maintenance of pension and other rights for workers recruited during the war for work in countries other than their own. Its main purpose was to protect those who had been brought to labor in "Hitler's slave market"; and its acceptance by Germany was to be imposed as part of the peace settlement. In form, however, the proposed treaty was reciprocal and based, as the Office report said, on "the aim of securing a right which properly belongs to an individual worker as such, regardless of his race, nationality or religion."

The Conference refused to accept the proposal in a reciprocal form. As the spokesman for the subcommittee declared—

The diplomatic form of the final solution suggested is a unilateral one of obligations to be imposed on Axis and associated countries. We gave preference to this form of solution for one simple reason. The problems to be settled are of unilateral origin from the side of the Axis and require, therefore, a unilateral solution from the United Nations.

The detailed provisions of the resolution that was adopted by the Conference are largely based on the suggestions made by the Office. Nationals of the occupied countries who were recruited by Germany and other Axis countries should be entitled to the insurance rights—old-age or invalidity pensions, workmen's compensation, or unemployment benefits—that they would have acquired during the period of service in Germany if they had been full nationals of the recruiting country and not, for example, Jews, Poles, or Russians. These rights should be secured by lump-sum payments to be made by the social-insurance institution of the Axis country to the corresponding institution of the country from which the worker had come. The individual's claim would then be met by the social-security agency of his own country.

Under the terms of the resolution, this payment by the recruiting country should "be effected independently of all other financial obligations which may be incurred as a result of the war." These debts, however, should, according to the subcommittee's report, be considered as liabilities not merely of the social-insurance institution but also "of the Axis or associated country concerned." Finally, the com-

mittee proposed that the Governing Body should within 6 months create a commission to supervise the collection of these claims.

As the resolution attempted to assure "the priority of these claims over others" in ways that appeared to the United States Government delegation to prejudice the entire question of reparations, that delegation was not able to support the resolution in the form in which it was adopted. Nevertheless, the assertion of these rights as a proper subject for claims between nations is a significant indication of the extent to which social security is now recognized as part of the modern rights of man.

The more general problems of the occupied countries also received the sympathetic consideration of the Conference. In a series of moving speeches, spokesmen from the continental peoples called attention to the special difficulties that would have to be met in the post-war period in the countries which had suffered occupation and devastation and would suffer still further devastation in the very process of liberation. "For these countries," as the French representative pointed out, "it will not be a matter merely of transition from a war economy to a peace economy. It will be a matter of real economic and social reconstruction." Toward the close of the sessions the views of the delegations from the occupied countries of Europe were put before the Conference in the form of a declaration stressing the complete agreement of these delegations with the principles and objectives embodied in the Philadelphia Charter and in the social and economic resolutions. "The social ideal that is their goal is thus 'the same as that which inspires all the members of the Conference, and they will devote all their efforts to its speedy realization.'" In their countries, however, its realization will be impeded by the conditions of privation, exhaustion of stocks, depreciation and destruction of plants and of means of communication and transport, and by "chaos in finance, currency and movable property." "Until the emergence of order out of chaos * * * the Governments of the liberated countries will doubtless find themselves compelled to maintain or to introduce economic controls similar to those that the United Nations have had to impose on themselves to meet war needs." During this period, continued the Declaration, "They are justified in counting upon the full collaboration of countries less impoverished than they. They are convinced * * * that the countries that have known neither occupation nor devastation will wish to give them priority in the supply of the essential consumption and capital goods required for their economic and social restoration."

This declaration was presented to the Conference, which adopted by unanimous vote a resolution indicating its understanding of the special problems confronting the occupied countries, expressing the hope that the United Nations "and the other members of the Conference would unite their efforts to promote" the recovery of these countries, and asserting the determination of the I. L. O. to assist in rebuilding their social life "according to principles of international solidarity and respect for the fundamental spiritual and human values." In moving the adoption of this resolution, Miss Perkins spoke as follows:

The day-by-day resistance of the brave peoples living in the shadow of the Axis aggressor is bringing the day of final victory nearer and nearer. We in the United States welcome the coming of the day when we can express our feeling of obligation to them more directly, in a great action that will bring freedom to the people of

the occupied areas, in shipments of food and other essential supplies, to relieve as quickly as possible the needs of starving and suffering people in these areas.

The resolution was seconded by Sir Frederick Leggett, British Government delegate, who added: "We ask them to stand by for but a short time longer."

Recommendations on Technical Items

The third, fourth and fifth items of the agenda were as follows: The organization of employment in the transition from war to peace; Social security—principles, and problems arising out of the war; and Minimum standards of social policy in dependent territories.

The committees working on these items presented to the Conference seven recommendations, all of which were adopted. Each recommendation will, in due course, come before the competent authority of each member country, and action will be required, either positive or negative. If positive, the nation taking such action will be deemed to have accepted the general principles underlying the recommendation, but its obligations are not specific and quasi-contractual as is the case when a country ratifies an I. L. O. Convention.

One committee of the Conference laid the groundwork for a recommendation on the urgent problem of finding jobs for demobilized soldiers and sailors and for the men and women who will no longer be needed in the munitions industries at the close of the war. The recommendation adopted laid down the principle that "National programs for industrial demobilization and reconversion should be planned, in cooperation with employers' and workers' organizations, * * * in such manner as to facilitate the most rapid attainment of full employment for the production of needed goods and services." It suggested a number of specific measures for accomplishing this aim and particularly programs of training and retraining, and measures for the employment of disabled workers. To this the Conference added a recommendation for the strengthening of employment services and a recommendation that long-range national programs of public works should be planned in such a way that they may "be accelerated or slowed down in accordance with the employment situation in different parts of the country."

The discussion leading to the adoption of the employment recommendation insisted that veterans should receive all services to which they are entitled, but that there should also be equality of treatment for men demobilized from the services and those demobilized from war industries. The only way to accomplish this, it was agreed, is by the organization of the economy so that there will be full employment for all those who want work. Although Senator Thomas raised the question in a plenary session, whether full employment could not be achieved in peace as well as in war, this matter could not be resolved by the employment committee, for its decisions were limited to purely technical matters. The broad, basic policies underlying full employment were beyond its scope; they were, however, being concurrently handled by the committee dealing with the I. L. O.'s future policy and its recommendations to the United Nations.

Three other recommendations dealt with social security—with the security of income against the ordinary risks of life, with the provision of medical care, and with the important special question of the assur-

ance of social-security rights to the men and women of the armed forces and the women's auxiliaries. The first two of these recommendations set down in general terms the principles and objects to be attained in that development and extension of social security services which is and has been so important a phenomenon in our time in this and in many other countries. At many points these recommendations were consistent with the provisions of the Wagner-Murray-Dingell Bill now before the Congress of the United States. They included proposals for the extension of social insurance to groups of persons not now covered, placed sickness insurance on the same footing as unemployment and old-age insurance, and asked for a comprehensive system of public medical care. With the proposals on income security and on social insurance for those in military service the United States delegation could gladly concur. The recommendation on medical care, however, called for measures going so far beyond present practice in the United States that the Government delegation considered that it must abstain from voting on this question.

The interest shown in the work of the Conference Committee on Social Security, on which 36 governments accepted membership, showed how truly world-wide is the aspiration for greater social security. Particularly notable was the participation of the Latin American delegates in this work, indicating as it did the progress already made in this field in the Latin American countries and their eagerness for still greater advance. The secretariat of the Organization probably felt a special pride in this matter, since some of its members (the late Dr. Osvald Stein in particular) have done much to aid in the elaboration of social-security programs in the southern republics.

Another recommendation adopted by the Conference dealt with social policy in dependent territories. It consisted of a series of carefully drawn clauses for the promotion of social and economic development and for the improvement of labor standards for the people of colonial areas. The Committee which worked out this recommendation was a remarkable one and one of a sort which only the I. L. O. could have brought together. Among its members were workers representing the native peoples both of Africa and of the East Indies. There were employers from colonial areas. There were experienced colonial administrators from the British, Belgian, Dutch, and French Governments. The members of the Committee reached agreement on a large number of concrete proposals. They recognized, as the reporter of the committee said to the full Conference, that "a gigantic transformation is under way throughout the world even among the most remote people," and they therefore were putting forward what may rightly be called the labor and social clauses of a new charter for workers in dependent areas. The representative of the British Government, in supporting the adoption of this recommendation, gave remarkably full assurance that its principles would be put into effect in the dependent territories under British control.

The Conference, desiring to aid in the implementation of the Atlantic Charter, recommends that members of the I. L. O. apply certain general principles and minimum standards regarding the treatment of native workers in dependent territories. Among the former are providing financial and technical assistance to permit

native peoples to produce effectively; establishing conditions of trade such that effective producers may enjoy "reasonable standards of living"; associating the peoples of dependent territories in the framing and execution of social legislation, preferably through their own elected representatives. Among minimum standards to be observed are prohibition of slavery and, when the emergency of war has passed, rapid elimination of forced labor; elimination of recruiting and creation of a labor supply through spontaneous offer; regulation of the opium traffic; protection of women workers and the placing of strict limitations on the labor of children and young persons; abolition of wage payments in the form of alcoholic beverages; establishment of adequate conditions of housing; payment of workmen's compensation benefits; maintenance of certain basic civil rights, including the right to trade-union membership; establishment of a labor-inspection service; recognition of the important role played by cooperatives in raising living standards.

Governing Body Elections

This year the Electoral Colleges met. Their function is to select occupants for nonpermanent governmental seats on the Governing Body of the Office, and to name appropriate representatives of workers and employers. Changes were made, though the new Governing Body will retain most of its former members. The United States retains its three members, and the chairmanship. Peru and Greece were selected to fill vacancies created by the now-effective withdrawal of Spain. By a previous decision China is included as a permanent rather than nonpermanent member. Lombardo Toledano, of Mexico, was voted a workers' member, while several new regular members were selected to replace former worker and employer members who cannot now be reached in occupied Europe.

Basic Accident Factors in Shipyards¹

Summary

ON THE basis of comprehensive reports received from the great majority of shipyards holding U. S. Maritime Commission or Navy Department contracts, the total number of disabling work injuries experienced by employees of private shipyards during 1943 is estimated to have been about 102,500.

The reports received were prepared on a monthly basis, and each report included only a record of the injuries which had occurred during the previous 30-day period. Details as to the final outcome of many of the reported injuries, therefore, are not yet available. At the time the reports were prepared, however, 0.5 percent of the injuries had already developed into fatalities and 1.2 percent had definitely resulted in permanent physical impairments. It is reasonable to expect that later information will increase these proportions of serious disabilities.

The monetary cost of these injuries probably cannot be determined accurately for many years. The suffering involved can never be evaluated. The production losses during 1943, in terms of lost manpower, however, can be reasonably estimated. Using only the conservative average of 20 days of lost time for each disabling injury, which includes no allowance for future economic losses arising from the many deaths and permanent impairments, these injuries represent 2,050,000 man-days of idleness on the part of the injured workers, who otherwise could have devoted that time to building ships. This amount of lost time is equivalent to full-time employment for about 7,000 workers.

No possibility exists for reclaiming any of the time lost in the past, but efforts can be and are being made to avoid similar losses in the future by preventing the recurrence of such a great volume of accidents. Accident-prevention work is primarily the translation, into current action, of measures which experience indicates should have been taken in the past. A knowledge of the causes of the injuries which have occurred therefore can aid immeasurably in the determination of the lines along which safety efforts should be intensified.

It is generally recognized that every accident may be traced to the existence of an unsafe working condition, to the commission of an unsafe act by some individual, or to a combination of these accident-producing factors. The correction of unsafe working conditions generally is entirely within the powers of management. The avoidance of unsafe acts, however, requires cooperation and understanding by both management and workers. Management may take the lead, by providing safety-minded supervision and by making sure that all workers are acquainted with the hazards of their operations and are familiar with the means of overcoming those hazards.

No general outline can cover all of the details necessary to establish a successful safety program for any particular plant. From the detailed information now available regarding the shipyard accidents

¹ Prepared in the Industrial Hazards Division by Frank S. McElroy and Arthur L. Svenson. For a discussion of injury frequency rates, accident types, and nature of injuries in shipyards during 1943 see Monthly Labor Review for May 1944 (p. 1004).

of 1943 it is possible, however, to point out the general types of hazards which have been most productive of injuries in the industry. By translating this information into positive statements of preventive actions which should be taken to avoid the repetition of previous accidents, the fundamental lines of approach to an effective safety program for the future become clear.

Detailed analysis of the circumstances which led to the occurrence of 56,865 injuries to shipyard workers in 1943 indicates that the greater part of these injuries occurred because of the existence of four general types of unsafe working conditions² and of the five general types of unsafe acts.³ Safety engineers are already highly conscious of these accident factors and the reports indicate that most supervisors are also aware of their existence. Every accident, however, has its own special significance and raises peculiar problems for the accident preventionist. This endless variety of circumstances which lead to individual accidents tends to place equal emphasis upon all types of prevention efforts. Nevertheless, when a large volume of accidents and the preventive recommendations for each case have been analyzed and classified into similar groups, the outstanding importance of particular preventive activities becomes evident. On the basis of the 1943 experience and the recommendations made by supervisors for the prevention of similar accidents, it is plain that the safety activities deserving primary attention in shipyards are as follows:

- A. To eliminate the most important unsafe working conditions—
 1. Provide ample supplies of adequate personal safety equipment for use in all operations presenting hazards which such equipment can overcome.
 2. Improve housekeeping conditions in and around all workplaces.
 3. Regularly inspect all tools, material, and equipment for defects and immediately repair or replace all imperfect items.
 4. Provide and require the use of proper guards for machinery and equipment and see that guardrails are used around all openings or elevated working surfaces.
- B. To eliminate the most important unsafe personal acts—
 1. Make sure that both workers and supervisors understand and can recognize the circumstances in which different kinds of safety equipment are necessary and that the supervisors require the use of such equipment in those circumstances.
 2. Provide training in the safe methods of manual handling of tools, equipment, and material, and enforce the use of those methods through close supervision.
 3. Train both workers and supervisors to recognize and to avoid unsafe positions, and provide thorough instructions in the proper methods of lifting heavy objects.
 4. Provide specific training in the safe use of ladders and stagings for both workers and supervisors, and require the supervisors to prohibit the unsafe use of such equipment.

² See tables 1 and 2.

³ See tables 3 and 4.

5. Thoroughly instruct all workers on or about cranes, vehicles, and other mechanical equipment in the rules for safe operation of the equipment and require the supervisors to enforce the rules strictly.

The Unsafe Working Conditions

LACK OF SAFETY EQUIPMENT, OR USE OF DEFECTIVE SAFETY EQUIPMENT

Outstanding among the unsafe working conditions leading to disabling injuries during 1943 was that of working without proper safety equipment.

Twelve percent of all the recorded disabilities resulted from the lack of goggles in the performance of work which presented obvious eye hazards (table 1). An additional 3 percent was charged to the use of defective or unsuitable goggles by workers who apparently believed that they were adequately protected from such injuries. Flying particles, originating in welding, grinding, chipping, scaling, drilling, and reaming operations were the source of about two-thirds of these injuries. Most of the others were cases of welder's flash.

Emphasis upon the need for proper goggles should not overshadow the need for other types of personal safety equipment. Four percent of the accidents analyzed resulted from the lack of safety equipment or the use of defective safety equipment other than goggles. These cases included unsafe conditions such as handling acids or hot materials without gloves, welders working without welder's leathers, and other operations performed without specifically prescribed safety equipment. These were all instances in which the lack of safety equipment or the use of defective safety equipment actually caused the accident, and do not include the many other cases in which proper safety equipment would have prevented or minimized the injuries without preventing the accidents.

POOR HOUSEKEEPING

Thirteen percent of the disabilities in 1943 were the direct result of poor housekeeping in and around the workplaces of the yards. Nearly two-thirds of the poor housekeeping accidents resulted in slips or falls. The remainder were primarily cases in which the injured person was struck by material falling from shaky piles or elevated surfaces, or cases in which workmen struck against objects which lay in their path. A typical report on accidents of this group stated that, as a shipfitter stepped down from a ladder, he placed his heel upon a welder's line which was lying at the base of the ladder. His ankle turned, throwing him off balance, and he fell onto a metal angle which was also lying close to the ladder.

The problem of improving housekeeping conditions is undoubtedly one of the most difficult facing the shipyard safety engineer. Some shipyard managements, however, have achieved considerable success in improving conditions by more careful scheduling of deliveries, so that only a minimum of material and equipment need be stocked at the points of operation. Others have found it possible to relocate manifolds and air outlets and thus reduce the lengths of cable and air lines necessary to reach to the work. Clean-up crews have been created to patrol the yards, ways, and hulls, removing scrap, un-

needed tools and material, replacing poorly piled stock, and cleaning areas which have become slippery because of oil, water, or ice.

TABLE 1.—Disabling Accidents in Shipyards, Classified by Unsafe Mechanical or Physical Condition and by Accident Type, 1943

Unsafe mechanical or physical condition	All types		Accident type			
	Number	Percent	Struck in eye by foreign body	Struck by other objects	Falls to lower level	Falls on same level
All accidents: Number.....	56,865		6,159	13,578	6,932	4,993
Percent.....		100	11	24	12	9
Lack of, or defective safety equipment.....	10,520	19	5,331	944	43	33
No goggles.....	6,836	12	4,037	352		
Goggles defective or unsuitable.....	1,516	3	1,275	89	1	
Lack of other, or defective safety equipment.....	2,168	4	19	503	42	35
Poor housekeeping.....	7,191	13	11	1,831	643	2,366
Failure to keep deck or floor cleared.....	3,230	6	7	343	113	1,416
Failure to keep other work surfaces cleared.....	1,429	3	4	480	255	292
Slippery, because of water, grease, ice, snow.....	1,275	2		61	234	617
Unsafe piled or stored.....	1,257	2		947	41	41
Defects of agencies.....	4,733	9	76	1,879	1,311	256
Fatigued, decayed, worn, frayed.....	1,544	3	43	597	281	101
Insecurely bolted, braced, welded, etc.....	1,308	2		921	195	43
Unsafe construction or erection.....	949	2		146	661	49
Other defects of agencies.....	932	2	33	215	174	63
Unguarded agencies.....	2,679	5	19	303	1,470	63
Other unsafe mechanical or physical conditions.....	3,825	7	31	1,428	483	231
Unclassified, insufficient data.....	5,949	10	272	1,355	620	870
No unsafe mechanical or physical condition.....	21,968	37	419	5,838	2,362	1,472

Unsafe mechanical or physical condition	Accident type—Continued					
	Slip and over-exertion	Striking against	Contact with welding or arc-radiations	Caught in, on, or between	Accident type, not elsewhere classified	Unclassified, insufficient data
All accidents: Number.....	9,005	5,435	13,011	3,549	3,051	1,152
Percent.....	16	10	5	6	5	2
Lack of, or defective safety equipment.....	44	477	2,596	57	940	53
No goggles.....		25	2,335		65	22
Goggles defective or unsuitable.....		4	124	1	19	3
Lack of other, or defective safety equipment.....	44	448	137	56	856	28
Poor housekeeping.....	1,565	509		195	35	36
Failure to keep deck or floor cleared.....	953	317		40	25	16
Failure to keep other work surfaces cleared.....	268	105		12	4	9
Slippery, because of water, grease, ice, snow.....	307	38		11	3	4
Unsafe piled or stored.....	37	49		132	3	7
Defects of agencies.....	242	445	3	218	251	52
Fatigued, decayed, worn, frayed.....	84	126	3	83	206	20
Insecurely bolted, braced, welded, etc.....	29	15		90	5	10
Unsafe construction or erection.....	49	19		9	2	14
Other defects of agencies.....	80	285		36	38	8
Unguarded agencies.....	76	213	212	240	75	78
Other unsafe mechanical or physical conditions.....	313	221	15	395	664	44
Unclassified, insufficient data.....	820	589	66	328	502	827
No unsafe mechanical or physical condition.....	5,945	2,981	119	2,116	584	132

¹ Includes 2,800 cases of welder's flash and 121 body burns.

DEFECTIVE AGENCIES

The general need for more adequate inspection and immediate repair or replacement of imperfect equipment, tools, and materials was strongly indicated by the fact that 9 percent of the analyzed accidents were directly due to defective agencies (table 2).

Staging or scaffold failures were particularly numerous among the accidents of this group. As a rule, staging defects were faults of original construction rather than weaknesses which had developed during use. Loose or overlapped floor boards, gaps between the staging and hull, and improper bracing were frequently reported as the direct causes of accidents. In many instances subsequent investigation revealed that the defective stagings had not been erected by a regular stage builder, and presumably had not been given any qualified inspection before being put into service. A not unusual example of such conditions was described in a report which stated that a painter had built himself a temporary scaffold and on finishing his work had departed, leaving it in place. Later when several chippers used the scaffold, under the impression that it had been erected by stage builders for their use, it collapsed and dropped the workers and their equipment to the way.

Mushroomed heads, splintered handles, short-circuited electrical contacts, and other defects in hand tools and portable equipment caused a considerable volume of injuries which could easily have been prevented had the equipment been inspected and repaired before being issued by the toolroom. Similarly, more frequent and thorough inspection and repair of crane booms, masts, cables, gears, slings, and limit switches would have prevented many accidents which resulted from defective crane parts and equipment.

Undue haste to complete work and a lack of finished-job inspection, which allowed many metal parts, decking, shoring, and other structural members to be left without proper bracing or support, led to numerous accidents. Specifically, there were numerous occasions when workmen were seriously injured as they stood on or worked with construction parts which others had placed in position but had left only tacked instead of fully welded.

UNGUARDED AGENCIES

One in every 20 of the disabling injuries in 1943 was directly attributable to the lack of a needed guard. Most numerous among these were the cases in which guardrails were not provided at deck openings or at the edges of elevated working surfaces. Cases of unguarded gears or other unguarded machine parts were of less numerical importance, but nevertheless gave rise to many serious injuries. Relatively few cases resulting in welder's flash were included in this general category, since protection against this type of injury is best provided by the wearing of goggles by everyone working in the vicinity of welding operations. However, shop welding which is regularly carried on in one location day after day can and usually should be shielded by screens to avoid the necessity of requiring the general use of goggles by everyone in the shop. Similarly, outside welding jobs which are of short duration should generally be shielded for the protection of nearby workers who may not have been provided with goggles.

TABLE 2.—Disabling Accidents in Shipyards, Classified by Unsafe Mechanical or Physical Condition and by Agency, 1943

Unsafe mechanical or physical condition	All agencies		Agency				
	Number	Percent	Decks, floors, hatches	Scaffold, staging	Other working surfaces	Metal parts and stock	Foreign bodies
Total: Number.....	56,865		3,626	2,647	4,330	8,064	16,260
Percent.....		100	6	5	8	13	11
Lack of, or defective safety equipment.....	10,520	19	96	21	40	133	5,542
No goggles.....	6,836	12				9	4,210
Goggles defective or unsuitable.....	1,516	3				1	1,307
Lack of other, or defective safety equipment.....	2,168	4	96	21	40	123	25
Poor housekeeping.....	7,191	13	598	66	432	1,576	
Failure to keep deck or floor cleared.....	3,230	6				603	
Failure to keep other work surfaces cleared.....	1,429	3				283	
Slippery, because of water, grease, ice, snow.....	1,275	2	596	64	376	87	
Unsafely piled or stored.....	1,257	2	2	2	56	603	
Defects of agencies.....	4,733	9	59	1,243	422	611	1
Fatigued, decayed, worn, frayed.....	1,544	3	15	171	154	17	
Insecurely bolted, braced, welded, etc.....	1,308	2	12	28	88	520	
Unsafe construction or erection.....	940	2	5	898	23		
Other defects of agencies.....	932	2	27	146	157	74	1
Unguarded agencies.....	2,679	5	1,053	184	281	76	12
Other unsafe mechanical and physical conditions.....	3,825	7	266	132	276	465	13
Unclassified, insufficient data.....	5,949	10	508	328	451	873	260
No unsafe mechanical or physical condition.....	21,968	37	1,046	672	2,428	4,330	432

Unsafe mechanical or physical condition	Agency—Continued						
	Tools	Cranes and vehicles	Lumber	Welding—arc radiations	Cable, hose, etc.	Miscellaneous agencies	Unclassified, insufficient data
Total: Number.....	5,515	3,963	3,131	2,890	2,683	11,692	2,064
Percent.....	10	7	6	5	5	20	4
Lack of, or defective safety equipment.....	147	9	41	2,502	36	1,853	100
No goggles.....	28		3	2,300	7	249	30
Goggles defective or unsuitable.....	4			122		78	4
Lack of other, or defective safety equipment.....	115	9	38	80	29	1,526	66
Poor housekeeping.....	416	81	803		1,506	1,403	310
Failure to keep deck or floor cleared.....	189	7	320		1,208	734	169
Failure to keep other work surfaces cleared.....	181	8	227		283	330	127
Slippery, because of water, grease, ice, snow.....	14	45	35			48	10
Unsafely piled or stored.....	32	21	221		15	301	4
Defects of agencies.....	826	345	175		327	606	28
Fatigued, decayed, worn, frayed.....	484	205	11		184	295	8
Insecurely bolted, braced, welded, etc.....	270	87	56		3	240	4
Unsafe construction or erection.....		2				8	13
Other defects of agencies.....	72	51	108		140	153	3
Unguarded agencies.....	66	110	23	207	9	643	15
Other unsafe mechanical and physical conditions.....	225	1,121	72	7	61	1,126	60
Unclassified, insufficient data.....	322	252	342	61	84	1,208	1,260
No unsafe mechanical or physical condition.....	3,513	2,045	1,675	113	660	4,763	291

¹ Includes 6,150 cases of foreign bodies causing eye irritation only.

The Unsafe Acts

FAILURE TO WEAR PROPER SAFETY EQUIPMENT

From many of the reports describing injuries which occurred because of the lack of proper safety equipment it appeared that the equipment was actually available but was not being used at the time of the accidents. Other reports indicated that it was necessary to proceed with the work without such protection because the needed safety equipment was not obtainable or provided. The majority, however, indicated only that proper safety equipment was not being used, without stating whether or not it was available.

When both supervisors and workers have been fully instructed in the need for safety equipment, and the equipment is available, there can be no question as to their joint responsibility for any injuries which occur because the equipment was not used. However, the question as to what constitutes availability frequently arises. In some instances the reports indicated that the necessary equipment could have been secured from the toolroom, but the toolroom was so far away from the point of operation that it hardly seemed worth the time and effort to go after the equipment. As a result the workmen, presumably with their supervisor's acquiescence, elected to take a chance and injuries followed. Management can help to avoid this type of unsafe act by seeing that such equipment is conveniently available and by holding the supervisor strictly accountable for its use, even when the work is of short duration.

In those cases in which proper safety equipment was not available, the full responsibility for the resulting injuries must lie with the safety department or with the purchasing department, because of their omission in not having it on hand.

Specifically, the measures most frequently suggested by supervisors as a means of overcoming these unsafe practices were:

1. Maintain at convenient locations an adequate supply of safety equipment which has been selected with due consideration not only for its effectiveness in preventing injury but also for the ease and comfort of the worker who must wear it.
2. Maintain every piece of safety equipment in good condition and make sure that it is properly fitted to the wearer.
3. See that all supervisors and workmen are fully acquainted with the hazards which require the use of safety equipment, and that they are familiar with the type of equipment needed in each instance.
4. Establish rules requiring the use of safety equipment where it is necessary and require supervisors to prohibit the performance of hazardous operations unless the proper safety equipment is used.

GRIPPING INSECURELY OR LIFTING EXCESSIVE WEIGHT

Sixteen percent of the accidents analyzed in 1943 resulted from unsafe manual handling of tools, material, and equipment (table 3). The majority of these were cases in which objects slipped from the worker's hands and caused crushing or pinching injuries, although a considerable number of workers were thrown off balance and suffered painful falls when the material slid from their grasp. The awkward shapes of many of the materials handled, oily or slippery spots on the

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GRIPPING INSECURELY OR LIFTING EXCESSIVE WEIGHT

Sixteen percent of the accidents analyzed in 1943 resulted from unsafe manual handling of tools, material, and equipment (table 3). The majority of these were cases in which objects slipped from the worker's hands and caused crushing or pinching injuries, although a considerable number of workers were thrown off balance and suffered painful falls when the material slid from their grasp. The awkward shapes of many of the materials handled, oily or slippery spots on the

materials, oil on the workmen's fingers, and simple inattention were all factors which contributed to these accidents.

Attempts to lift or carry excessive weights also produced a considerable number of injuries, many of which were hernias. Some of the accidents classified in this group undoubtedly might have been listed as improper lifting, i. e., lifting with bent back. The reports, however, were not always explicit in stating whether or not the injured workers had followed proper lifting methods. In the absence of such information, the injuries resulting from lifting heavy weights were placed in the excessive-lifting category.

Accidents resulting from a faulty grip while handling materials are exceedingly difficult to eliminate except through an acute safety consciousness on the part of the worker. This can be attained only by thorough safety training. Supervisors, however, can do much to prevent injuries from excessive lifting by seeing that mechanical lifting equipment is available or that a sufficient number of workers is assigned whenever heavy objects are to be moved.

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	Num- ber	Per- cent	Struck in eye by foreign body	Struck by other objects	Falls to lower level	Falls on same level
Total: Number.....	56,865		6,159	13,578	6,932	4,969
Percent.....		100	11	24	12	9
Failure to wear safety equipment.....	10,887	19	5,452	950	61	41
Failing to wear safety equipment.....	8,219	14	4,083	620	15	5
Wearing improper or defective equipment.....	1,706	3	1,260	184	7	3
Removing safety equipment or wearing improper clothing.....	872	2	109	146	39	33
Gripping insecurely or lifting beyond one's capacity..	8,555	16	3	3,480	142	241
Gripping insecurely or taking wrong hold.....	5,413	10	3	2,588	105	170
Lifting or carrying too heavy a load.....	2,151	4		344	14	54
Other unsafe handling.....	991	2		548	23	17
Taking unsafe position or posture.....	101	14	6	861	1,278	1,251
Inattention to footing, or failing to secure stance..	2,412	4		68	459	769
Lifting with bent back or overreaching.....	1,662	3		20	55	28
Working too near surfaces, objects, or other person..	1,182	2	6	274	11	18
Other unsafe position or posture.....	2,845	5		469	753	436
Using ladder or staging unsafely, or failing to use them	2,041	4		37	1,514	51
Ascending or descending rapidly, or not gripping firmly.....	870	2		6	448	24
Other unsafe use of, or failing to use, ladder or staging.....	1,171	2		31	706	27
Unsafe operation or exposure to cranes, machines, vehicles.....	1,890	4		1,040	108	35
Unnecessary exposure to crane or crane load.....	1,014	2		536	27	20
Other unsafe driving, operating or exposure.....	876	2		504	81	16
Using without authority, or failing to block, secure, or warn.....	1,735	3	10	988	134	42
Unsafe use of equipment, or making safety devices inoperative.....	1,401	2	65	446	201	40
Other unsafe acts.....	11,962	21	69	3,525	2,493	2,014
Unclassified, insufficient data.....	5,949	10	270	1,388	585	552
No unsafe act.....	4,344	7	284	863	776	725

TABLE 3

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TABLE 3.—Disabling Accidents in Shipyards, Classified by Unsafe Act and by Accident Type, 1943—Continued

Unsafe act	Accident type—Continued					
	Slip and over-exertion	Striking against	Contact with welding-arc radiations	Caught in, on, or between	Accident type, not elsewhere classified	Unclassified, insufficient data
Total: Number.....	9,005	5,435	13,011	3,549	3,051	1,152
Percent.....	16	10	5	6	5	2
Failure to wear safety equipment.....	28	487	2,811	50	950	57
Falling to wear safety equipment.....		428	2,514	10	499	45
Wearing improper or defective equipment.....		24	154	8	147	9
Removing safety equipment or wearing improper clothing.....	28	35	143	32	304	3
Gripping insecurely or lifting beyond one's capacity..	2,476	1,232	5	829	103	44
Gripping insecurely or taking wrong hold.....	576	1,199	5	648	96	23
Lifting or carrying too heavy a load.....	1,638	19		64	2	16
Other unsafe handling.....	262	14		117	5	5
Taking unsafe position or posture.....	2,948	1,230	5	354	136	32
Inattention to footing, or failing to secure stance..	741	277		72	10	7
Lifting with bent back or overreaching.....	1,532	17		5		5
Working too near surfaces, objects, or other person.	7	720	5	60	78	3
Other unsafe position or posture.....	668	216		217	39	17
Using ladder or staging unsafely, or failing to use them.	594	165		24	3	12
Ascending or descending rapidly, or not gripping firmly.	296	80		10	2	4
Other unsafe use of, or failing to use, ladder or staging.	298	86		14	1	8
Unsafe operation or exposure to cranes, machines, vehicles.	37	39		608	2	20
Unnecessary exposure to crane or crane load.....	13	15		396		7
Other unsafe driving, operating or exposure.....	24	24		212	2	13
Using without authority, or failing to block, secure, or warn.	49	40	4	353	105	10
Unsafe use of equipment, or making safety devices imperative.	57	161	9	236	171	15
Other unsafe acts.....	1,508	1,158	12	586	526	71
Unclassified, insufficient data.....	813	622	59	314	498	848
No unsafe act.....	495	300	106	195	557	43

¹ Includes 2,890 cases of welder's flash.

TAKING UNSAFE POSITION OR POSTURE

Accidents which occurred because workers unnecessarily placed themselves in dangerous positions accounted for 14 percent of the disabling injuries. Slips, strains, and falls were particularly numerous.

Outstanding among the specific unsafe acts leading to these accidents was the failure of workers to watch their footing on irregular surfaces. Others included such practices as working or walking too near the edge of elevated surfaces, exposure of part of the body under the work, running, walking backwards, and taking short cuts instead of using the provided walkways. Most of these practices must be overcome through intensified safety instruction and better supervision.

USING LADDERS OR STAGING UNSAFELY, OR FAILING TO USE LADDERS OR STAGING

About 1 in every 25 disabling injuries in 1943 resulted directly from the unsafe use of or failure to use ladders and staging. Three-fifths of these accidents were falls and most of the remainder were strains and sprains. Primarily the unsafe acts in this group consisted of ascending or descending ladders too rapidly or without sufficient grip; descending ladders while facing outward; carrying

materials on ladders; jumping from elevations instead of using ladders; standing or climbing upon materials or makeshift scaffolds instead of using proper ladders or staging; and overloading stagings either with materials or personnel. The provision of conveniently located ladders or stairs can do much to overcome the tendency to jump from elevations, and foresight in laying out operations which require staging so that the regular staging builders arrive in time to erect proper stages can avoid the use of makeshift equipment. Most of the unsafe acts in this group, however, can be eliminated only through better supervision.

TABLE 4.—Disabling Accidents in Shipyards, Classified by Unsafe Act and by Agency, 1943

Unsafe act	All agencies		Agency				
	Num- ber	Per- cent	Decks, floors, hatch- es	Scaf- fold, stag- ing	Other work- ing sur- faces	Metal parts and stock	For- eign bodies
Total: Number.....	56,865	-----	3,626	2,647	4,330	8,064	16,260
Percent.....	-----	100	6	5	8	13	11
Failure to wear safety equipment.....	10,887	19	107	23	44	121	5,067
Falling to wear safety equipment.....	8,219	14	81	9	6	101	4,241
Wearing improper or defective safety equipment.....	1,796	3	2	3	3	9	1,296
Removing safety equipment or wearing improper clothing.....	872	2	24	11	35	11	130
Gripping insecurely or lifting beyond one's capacity.....	8,555	16	14	26	79	2,293	1
Gripping insecurely, or taking wrong hold.....	5,413	10	7	8	33	1,103	1
Lifting or carrying too heavy a load.....	2,151	4	5	11	29	763	-----
Other unsafe handling.....	991	2	2	7	17	427	-----
Taking unsafe position or posture.....	8,101	14	944	540	1,474	1,775	10
Inattention to footing, or failure to secure stance.....	2,412	4	556	193	790	253	-----
Lifting with bent back or overreaching.....	1,662	3	22	43	40	451	-----
Working too near surfaces, objects, or other per- son.....	1,182	2	30	60	27	416	9
Other unsafe position or posture.....	2,845	5	336	254	617	655	1
Using ladder or staging unsafely, or failing to use them.....	2,041	4	118	230	1,073	92	-----
Ascending or descending rapidly, or not gripping firmly.....	870	2	13	34	709	3	-----
Other unsafe use of, or failing to use ladder or staging.....	1,171	2	105	205	304	89	-----
Unsafe operation of, or exposure to cranes, machines, vehicles.....	1,890	4	1	1	3	25	-----
Unnecessary exposure to crane or crane load.....	1,014	2	1	1	3	10	-----
Other unsafe driving, operating or exposure.....	876	2	-----	-----	-----	15	-----
Using without authority or failing to block, secure, signal, or warn.....	1,735	3	11	24	77	420	8
Unsafe use of equipment or making safety devices inoperative.....	1,401	2	81	39	70	59	20
Other unsafe acts.....	11,962	21	1,213	975	537	2,049	34
Unclassified, insufficient data.....	5,949	10	417	266	320	904	259
No unsafe act.....	4,344	7	720	514	653	326	361

¹ Includes 6,159 cases of foreign bodies causing eye irritations only.

TABLE 4

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TABLE 4.—Disabling Accidents in Shipyards, Classified by Unsafe Act and by Agency, 1943—Continued

Unsafe act	Agency—Continued						
	Tools	Cranes and vehicles	Lumber	Welding—radiations	Cable, hose, etc.	Miscellaneous agencies	Unclassified, insufficient data
Total: Number.....	5,515	3,963	3,131	2,890	2,683	11,692	2,064
Percent.....	10	7	6	5	5	20	4
Failure to wear safety equipment.....	138	23	32	2,708	62	1,869	93
Failing to wear safety equipment.....	91	12	26	2,453	59	1,065	73
Wearing improper or defective safety equipment.....	14	4	3	148	3	304	7
Removing safety equipment or wearing improper clothing.....	33	7	3	105	-----	500	13
Gripping insecurely or lifting beyond one's capacity.....	2,514	185	1,089	-----	404	1,818	132
Gripping insecurely, or taking wrong hold.....	2,371	110	534	-----	281	938	27
Lifting or carrying too heavy load.....	87	62	368	-----	101	634	91
Other unsafe handling.....	56	13	187	-----	22	246	14
Taking unsafe position or posture.....	553	444	512	3	103	1,499	154
Inattention to footing, or failure to secure stance.....	54	146	79	-----	37	281	23
Lifting with bent back or overreaching.....	163	51	244	-----	110	453	85
Working too near surfaces, objects, or other person.....	190	27	65	3	7	346	12
Other unsafe position or posture.....	146	220	124	-----	39	419	34
Using ladder or staging unsafely, or failing to use them.....	30	53	26	-----	17	377	7
Ascending or descending rapidly, or not gripping firmly.....	1	34	-----	-----	2	13	1
Other unsafe use of, or failing to use ladder or staging.....	38	19	26	-----	15	364	6
Unsafe operation of, or exposure to cranes, machines, vehicles.....	4	1,718	4	-----	1	120	13
Unnecessary exposure to crane or crane load.....	3	984	2	-----	1	9	-----
Other unsafe driving, operating or exposure.....	1	734	2	-----	-----	111	13
Using without authority or failing to block, secure, signal, or warn.....	217	406	83	2	64	418	5
Unsafe use of equipment or making safety devices imperative.....	351	164	24	8	26	549	10
Other unsafe acts.....	1,091	511	952	9	1,694	2,800	97
Unclassified, insufficient data.....	317	234	331	57	88	1,236	1,520
No unsafe act.....	291	225	78	103	134	1,006	33

UNSAFE OPERATION, OR EXPOSURE TO CRANES, MACHINES, AND VEHICLES

Lack of experience on the part of the operator or of his assistants was frequently stated as the underlying reason for unsafe acts in connection with the use of cranes, machines, and vehicles. Outstanding among the unsafe acts in this group were excessive speed of operations; the failure to give, heed, or wait for proper signals; failure to stand clear of slings and sling loads; failure to secure crane and vehicle loads properly; and failure to observe traffic regulations. More thorough training and strict supervision were the remedies generally suggested.

Older Workers in Wartime¹

EVEN in the midst of the world conflict the tragic condition of job-seeking older workers in the late depression is a disturbing memory. However, following the outbreak of the war in Europe and the consequent speeding up of defense activities, the employment situation of men and women in the upper age brackets began to improve. After the declaration of war by the United States, the need for labor intensified and older workers found themselves in great demand. Among the manifestations of this change are the further increase in the number of older workers in the labor force as shown by the Census estimates; the acceleration in placement of such workers by the U. S. Employment Service; the growing numbers of persons returning to remunerative work after having been recipients of old-age benefits under the Social Security Act, and the postponement of the retirement of others who had never drawn such benefits but were eligible for them; and the reduction in number of persons receiving old-age assistance. Other reversals in the attitude towards the utilization of older people are evidenced by the elimination, with few exceptions, of the maximum age limits in U. S. Civil Service examinations; the reinstatement of retired Civil Service employees on Government pay rolls; the retention of Army and Navy officers eligible for retirement; the decline in the number of Forty-Plus clubs; and the appearance in various types of employment of older women, against whom job barriers had been especially formidable.

Census Estimates of Employment in Higher Age Brackets

From October 1942 to October 1943, according to U. S. Bureau of the Census estimates, there was a very considerable expansion in the volume of employment in the older groups of workers in the civilian labor force, as shown in table 1. The increase in the number of persons employed who were 45 years of age and over was 1,500,000, of whom 800,000 were women. Of the additional 200,000 in the number of employed persons 65 years of age and over, 100,000 were women.

The figures in table 1 are unrevised Census estimates, as the revisions which were published before this article went to press included no analysis by age groups.

¹ Prepared by Mary T. Waggaman of the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division.

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TABLE 1.—Estimated Civilian Labor Force, Employment and Unemployment, by Age and Sex, in October 1943 and October 1942¹

[Source U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Employment status and age	Estimated number (millions of persons)					
	Total		Males		Females	
	October 1943	October 1942	October 1943	October 1942	October 1943	October 1942
Total civilian, labor force.....	52.6	54.0	35.9	39.0	16.7	15.0
14-19 years.....	5.0	5.6	2.5	3.5	2.5	2.1
20-24 years.....	4.8	6.2	1.9	3.3	2.9	2.9
25-34 years.....	11.2	12.1	7.4	8.6	3.8	3.5
35-44 years.....	12.1	11.8	8.5	8.6	3.6	3.2
45-54 years.....	10.1	9.8	7.8	7.8	2.3	2.0
55-64 years.....	6.6	5.9	5.4	4.9	1.2	1.0
65 years and over.....	2.8	2.6	2.4	2.3	.4	.3
Total persons employed.....	51.9	52.4	35.5	38.1	16.4	14.3
14-19 years.....	4.8	5.3	2.5	3.3	2.3	2.0
20-24 years.....	4.8	6.0	1.9	3.2	2.9	2.8
25-34 years.....	11.1	11.9	7.3	8.5	3.8	3.4
35-44 years.....	12.0	11.5	8.5	8.5	3.5	3.0
45-54 years.....	10.0	9.5	7.7	7.7	2.3	1.8
55-64 years.....	6.5	5.7	5.3	4.7	1.2	1.0
65 years and over.....	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.2	.4	.3
Total persons unemployed ²7	1.6	.4	.9	.3	.7
14-19 years.....	.2	.3	(³)	.2	.2	.1
20-24 years.....	(³)	.2	(³)	.1	(³)	.1
25-34 years.....	.1	.2	.1	.1	(³)	.1
35-44 years.....	.1	.3	(³)	.1	(³)	.2
45-54 years.....	.1	.3	.1	.1	(³)	.1
55-64 years.....	.1	.2	.1	.2	(³)	(³)
65 years and over.....	(³)	.1	(³)	.1	(³)	(³)

¹ All data exclude persons in institutions.² Persons on public emergency work projects are included with the unemployed prior to July 1943.³ Less than 50,000.

Increase in Placements of Older Workers

The publication by the U. S. Employment Service of statistics of placements of workers by age groups has been discontinued, but unpublished figures made available by the War Manpower Commission for the quarter, April-June 1942, indicate that the war has increased the job opportunities of older workers. In that quarter the placements of men and women combined in the 45-54 age group rose from 164,813 to 233,809, or 41.9 above those in the quarter, October-December 1941, while the placements of both sexes in the group 55 years of age and over increased from 73,317 to 117,735, or 60.6 percent. Comparing the same two quarters, the increase in placements in the higher age brackets was much more striking for men than for women—59.4 percent for men and 9.7 percent for women in the 45-54 age group. In the over-55 age group the rise in placements for men was 78.0 percent as compared to 15.2 for women. As the labor shortage became more acute the increases became more substantial.

Some details of this improvement in the situation of older workers which, seemingly, it required a world war to effect, are here reviewed. Data in brief are given on the war-time establishment of apprenticeship and other training facilities for elderly persons, and on the organization of two old-age counseling centers for the rehabilitation of individuals no longer young. Reference is also made to important implications for older workers in certain new branches of medicine.

According to a press release of June 28, 1943, by the War Manpower Commission, the Chairman of that agency announced on that date that—

The steady rise in employment among older workers indicates that employers are losing their prejudice against this group and learning to value their experience and "steadiness." * * * The increased use of older workers is not restricted to industries and occupations which traditionally employed older people, but includes all vital war industries and essential civilian services.

He emphasized the necessity for further utilization of the older worker if the essential labor requirements were to be met.

Return of Old-Age Insurance Beneficiaries to Remunerative Employment

During 1942, the old-age and survivors insurance program was affected by two diverse influences: (1) The normal increase in retirements; and (2) the imperative demand for labor, which not only brought back retired persons and other beneficiaries into gainful occupations, but also kept in remunerative employment numerous other workers who in fact were eligible for retirement. The number in the latter group of course is not known; however, it is estimated that at the close of 1942 some 600,000 eligible workers had not claimed benefits. Furthermore, in November 1942, some 71,500 beneficiaries were not being paid benefits; in the great majority of cases, it was because they had current jobs covered by the Social Security Act.

At the close of the calendar year 1943, benefits were in suspension for approximately 114,000 beneficiaries because they, or the persons whose wage records constituted the basis of their benefits, were in covered employment. In addition, several hundred thousand wage earners eligible for retirement benefits had postponed submitting their claims and continued to work.

Diminishing Old-Age Assistance Rolls ²

The 2,100,000 receiving old-age assistance under the Social Security program at the close of 1943 represented a reduction of 80,500 persons, or 3.6 percent from the number of recipients in December of the previous year. Any decline in this particular dependent group is of considerable interest, as the number of individuals in the population 65 years of age or over increases by approximately 200,000 per annum. Under the economic conditions preceding the war, it was estimated, the old-age assistance rolls would have been augmented by almost 50,000 persons per annum.

In each successive month of 1943 fewer persons, in the country as a whole and in more than one-third of the States, received old-age assistance. During the last half of 1943, assistance was discontinued for approximately 18,000 because of the employment of the recipients or their spouses. This number does not include cases in the State of New York, for which these data are not available.

² The first 3 paragraphs are based on a manuscript for the "Public Assistance" section in the forthcoming Social Security Yearbook, 1943.

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The wartime increase in employment opportunities for aged persons has reduced the number who would otherwise have applied for assistance, especially those just reaching age 65, more substantially than the number leaving the rolls.

On May 29, 1944, the Pennsylvania Department of Public Assistance reported that during the preceding year private industry had taken more than 2,000 persons over 65 years of age from the old-age assistance rolls of that State. Moreover, only a small number of this group had been obliged to reapply for help. Among those securing employment was an 82-year-old man who made such a good record in picking up and delivering light packages that his employers asked the Public Assistance Department to obtain another old-age assistance recipient for similar work. The 88-year-old man referred, in response to the request, was found "equally satisfactory."

A university graduate 72 years of age, who had always been a white-collar worker until misfortune brought him to public aid, left the assistance rolls and took a position as factory inspector, while a 69-year-old woman became a sales clerk in a large department store.

An analysis of cases closed in the State of New Jersey in February 1943 revealed that 11 percent of the closings resulted from the recipients' obtaining employment. One man, who had been in receipt of assistance for about a decade, was over 80 years of age but had found a job as machinist.

Discontinuance of CCC Activities for Veterans of Preceding Wars

The U. S. Civilian Conservation Corps, which is generally acknowledged to have been one of the conspicuously successful agencies created in the great depression, provided work not only for unemployed youth but also for veterans of preceding wars.

The total enrollment in the veteran contingent of the Corps from March 31, 1933, to June 30, 1942, approximated 225,000, which constituted about 10 percent of the total membership.

Twenty thousand veterans left the Corps the year preceding its dissolution. The number of applications received was substantially lower, which is attributed to the fact that "more remunerative employment opportunities elsewhere were available as a result of requirements for increased production and distribution of war essentials."³

Elimination of Maximum Age Limits for Civil Service Examinations

Even in 1940 and 1941, the demand for skilled workers led to the liberalization of age limits in many of the U. S. Civil Service examinations. On March 18, 1942, the Commission issued a circular (Departmental, No. 325) which read in part as follows:

The attention of all departments and agencies is directed to Regulation II, Section 4, of the regulations promulgated under Executive Order 9063, authorizing the Commission to adopt necessary special procedures for the duration of the emergency.

The section referred to provides in effect that there will be *no maximum examination age limits* except in those cases where the appointing officer establishes to the satisfaction of the Commission that the interests of good administration require such limits for a particular examination.

³ United States Civilian Conservation Corps. Annual Report of the Director for the Fiscal Year ended June 30, 1942, Washington, 1943.

Except under the conditions stated below, maximum age limits for both departmental and field examinations will accordingly be abolished in the following instances:

1. All pending continuously open examinations.
2. All pending examinations in which the original issue date and closing date are separated by a period of 5 weeks or more, and the closing date for which is not earlier than April 30, 1942.
3. All re-announcements of previous examinations.

It was also stated that any department or agency desiring to retain the existing maximum-age restrictions with regard to examinations which were pending, or to retain such restrictions established under previous examinations in the three above-listed categories, must submit in writing to the Commission the reasons for desiring such restrictions.

In all examinations announced for new positions subsequent to the effective date of the regulations referred to above, there will be no maximum age limits unless the appointing officer of the department or agency at the time of requesting the examination establishes, to the satisfaction of the Commission or its representatives, that the interests of good administration require a specific maximum age limit.

Table 2 contains a selected list of positions (with basic salaries) available in the Federal service as of May 16, 1944, the need for personnel for which was declared urgent and for which examinations were open to older persons.

TABLE 2.—Opportunities in Federal Civil Service, in 1944¹

Position	Basic annual salary ²	Position	Basic annual salary ²
Aeronautical:		Medical:	
Inspector, engineering materials.....	\$1, 620-2, 600	Dental hygienist.....	\$1, 620
Maintenance supervisor.....	3, 200	Medical officer.....	3, 200-4, 600
	3, 500	Occupational therapy aide.....	1, 620-2, 000
Agricultural: Warehouse manager.....	2, 000-4, 600	Physiotherapy aide.....	1, 620
Clerical and office machine:			1, 800
Calculating-machine operator.....	1, 440	Veterinarian.....	2, 000
Alphabetic-card-punch operator.....	1, 260		2, 600
Photostat operator.....	1, 440	Nursing:	
Mimeograph operator.....	1, 260	Graduate nurse in United States.....	1, 800
Teletype operator.....	1, 440	Public Health nursing consultant.....	2, 600-5, 600
	1, 620	Miscellaneous:	
Economics and business:		Laboratory mechanic.....	1, 440-2, 300
Accountant and auditor.....	2, 600-6, 500	Lithographer.....	1, 440-2, 000
Economist and economic analyst.....	2, 600-6, 500	Radio: Radio inspector.....	2, 000-2, 600
Passenger rate clerk.....	2, 300	Scientific:	
	2, 600	Chemist.....	2, 600-5, 600
Statistician:		Meteorologist.....	2, 600-5, 600
Traffic and transportation specialist.....	2, 600-6, 500	Physicist.....	2, 600-5, 600
	2, 600-6, 500	Technical and scientific aid.....	1, 620-2, 600
Engineering:		Trades:	
Draftsman, engineering.....	1, 440-2, 600	Instrument maker.....	(7)
Engineer (aeronautical, chemical, electrical, explosives, industrial, marine, and other fields).....	2, 600-8, 000	Toolmaker.....	(7)
Engineering aid.....	1, 440-2, 600		
Expediter (marine).....	2, 600-3, 800		
Naval architect.....	2, 600-5, 600		

¹ Data are from U. S. Civil Service Commission. Form 2279, Issue No. 4, Opportunities in Federal Service, and Supplement No. 1 to the foregoing.

² Exclusive of overtime compensation for the present 48-hour Federal workweek, which amounts on annual basis to approximately 21 percent of that part of the basic salary not in excess of \$2,900 a year.

³ Pay ranges from \$7.44 per day to \$1.24 per hour.

⁴ Pay ranges from \$7.20 per day to \$1.08 per hour.

Reemployment of Federal Civil Service Annuitants

The U. S. Civil Service Retirement Division reported, under date of May 25, 1944, that annuitants reemployed before the attack on Pearl Harbor, December 7, 1941, numbered 689, and that since that date 789 additional retired employees have returned to the active, civil rolls of the Government. The first group was reemployed under Section 6 of the National Defense Act of June 28, 1940 (54 Stat. 676), authorizing the War and Navy Departments to reemploy persons who had been retired. The second group was brought back into Government work under Section 2 (b) of the Civil Service Retirement Act as amended January 24, 1942, providing that "an officer or employee retired under the age or optional provision of the law may be reemployed only in the event the appointing authority determines that he is possessed of special qualifications." On April 30, 1944, the number of these former annuitants engaged in the war effort was 1,017. The great majority of them were reemployed in the War and Navy Departments, generally as mechanics or skilled workers. The Commission has compiled no detailed data as to their ages, jobs, and salary.

Information as to the number of employees retained in the Federal Civil Service, under the pressure of war, beyond the age at which they would have been mandatorily retired, is not available at the Commission, as Federal departments are not required to report to the Commission the immediate reemployment of employees attaining the obligatory retirement age.

Older Groups in the Armed Forces

In May 1944, the Navy Department reported that 2,300 officers who had become eligible for retirement since the attack on Pearl Harbor were on active duty.

As of April 3, 1944, the number of Army officers on the retired list for all causes including age was 4,525, of whom 630 were on active duty.

Table 3, supplied by the Adjutant General's Office, shows that on December 31, 1943, the age groups 40 years and over contained 75,200 (11.6 percent) of the male Army officers, 78,500 (1.2 percent) of the enlisted males, 1,200 (16.2 percent) of the women officers, exclusive of the Army Nurse Corps and 42 women doctors, and 52,000 (7.9 percent) of the enlisted women. Of these older groups, 16,700 male officers and 6,800 enlisted men were 50 years of age or over.

TABLE 3.—Army Personnel, Male and Female, as of December 31, 1943, by Age

Age	Males ¹		Females		Age	Males ¹		Females	
	Officers ²	Enlisted men	Officers ³	Enlisted		Officers ²	Enlisted men	Officers ³	Enlisted
All ages.....	649, 000	6, 739, 000	7, 400	52, 000	42 years.....	6, 600	10, 000	200	600
18 years.....	273, 500	43 years.....	6, 900	11, 500	200	300
19 years.....	1, 900	513, 500	44 years.....	5, 700	7, 300	100	700
20 years.....	6, 600	561, 000	1, 200	45 years.....	5, 500	7, 800	100	400
21 years.....	16, 500	607, 700	100	4, 900	46 years.....	4, 800	5, 500
22 years.....	36, 900	607, 900	500	7, 900	47 years.....	4, 100	1, 200	100	200
23 years.....	47, 400	535, 300	400	6, 100	48 years.....	4, 200	1, 800	100	100
24 years.....	56, 300	517, 500	300	4, 700	49 years.....	3, 800	1, 300	200
25 years.....	59, 900	467, 400	600	4, 200	50 years.....	3, 000	1, 400	100	100
26 years.....	53, 300	344, 600	500	4, 000	51 years.....	2, 800	1, 400
27 years.....	43, 600	329, 500	300	1, 700	52 years.....	2, 200	400
28 years.....	39, 000	291, 700	600	2, 100	53 years.....	1, 900	800
29 years.....	32, 300	265, 400	300	1, 800	54 years.....	1, 500	400
30 years.....	25, 400	225, 900	400	1, 900	55 years.....	1, 400	500
31 years.....	23, 400	204, 400	300	1, 200	56 years.....	1, 000	400
32 years.....	21, 900	175, 600	300	1, 300	57 years.....	800	500
33 years.....	20, 100	161, 600	300	700	58 years.....	500	200
34 years.....	18, 500	144, 000	200	1, 200	59 years.....	600	100
35 years.....	17, 400	132, 400	300	700	60 years.....	300
36 years.....	16, 200	115, 900	400	1, 100	61 years.....	200	400
37 years.....	14, 700	102, 400	200	700	62 years.....	100	200
38 years.....	12, 700	67, 300	200	700	63 years.....	100	100
39 years.....	9, 800	18, 000	500	64 years.....	200
40 years.....	9, 000	12, 400	100	700	65 years and over.....	100
41 years.....	7, 900	12, 900	200	800					

¹ Includes warrant officers and flight officers.² Ages of officers based on 90 percent sample; those of enlisted men, on Personnel Survey.³ Excludes Army Nurse Corps (ages of nurses not available) and 42 women doctors.

Decline in Number of "Forty-Plus" Clubs

In the spring of 1939 the United States was still confronted by a receding but serious unemployment problem. Organizations known as "Forty-Plus" clubs were operating in various parts of the country. A partial list of these clubs published in the Monthly Labor Review included associations in 29 cities in the United States and 2 cities in Canada, and 1 club in London.

These clubs had been created in behalf of higher-salaried men and women over 40 years of age who were without jobs. The purpose of such organizations was to restore highly capable unemployed persons to business and industry. In many cases, the joblessness of these people had affected their morale. It was, therefore, a common practice of the club members to "sell" each other rather than themselves to prospective employers.

Roland R. Darling (now director of the Veterans Reception Center of the Greater Boston's Community Council), who was very active in the Forty-Plus movement, stated in a letter of May 8, 1944, to the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, that the majority of Forty-Plus clubs had ceased to function during 1942 or 1943, but that the "alumni"—the men placed in jobs—had retained their interest in the plan and are holding it ready for operation when the service is needed again. In Boston, for example, the alumni hold a monthly meeting.

Mr. Darling also reported on "some interesting reactions" of employers who hired men from Forty-Plus. One employment manager of an important company said that "after the war those men over 40 will be with me. We have not had any trouble from them.

They have good work habits and there was little or no absenteeism among them. Our plan is to keep them as long as we can. They have proven their worth." Another executive stated that the older men in his company were not so addicted as the younger workers to late hours, when not on the job, and that in general their production was very satisfactory. He also stressed that these more mature employees had good habits of work and did not take advantage of others.

A third employer held that young persons after the war will be obliged to make drastic adjustments when high wages will no longer be paid for jobs demanding few, if any, skills. Older workers have skills and good habits of work. Although they may not learn a new skill as rapidly as young persons, they are quicker to adapt to salary readjustments and to accept the reasons for them.

According to Mr. Darling it "is evident that these older men who have experienced unemployment know that no position is secure and that a person must establish relationships with the employer which will assure perfect understanding" in order to avoid dismissal on short notice. He added: "Of course, in line with the original policy, the local Forty-Plus organization will be set up by men who are over 40 and who are unemployed. None of us who have jobs will dictate policies but we will provide the new group with information regarding previous activities."

At least 16 Forty-Plus clubs are still in operation, according to a letter of May 4, 1944, to the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics from Henry Simler, chairman of the Forty-Plus Committee of the National Federation of Sales Executives. Among the cities in which these clubs are functioning are Buffalo, Chicago, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Denver, Detroit, Los Angeles, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, St. Paul, and San Francisco.

In certain cities the clubs have active alumni who have been placed through their respective organizations, and the dues paid by such alumni are helping the regular or active clubs in a financial way. The active clubs require no fees nor dues from members seeking positions. Mr Simler's letter, like that of Mr. Darling, indicates the opinion of the alumni of Forty-Plus clubs that there will be great need for these organizations in the post-victory period.

From time to time, in spite of the numerous war-job opportunities, the New York City Forty-Plus Club runs advertisements concerning able men who are in quest of positions and sends out bulletins listing high-caliber older men available for employment. A monthly bulletin is issued jointly by the Men Over Forty Club of Chicago and the alumni association of that organization.

In a broadcast from Chicago on March 10, 1944, Dr. Preston Bradley said in part:

Five years ago when the Men Over Forty Club organized here in Chicago, I did all I could for that fine organization.

The club has been going all these years and performing the most remarkable services of any I know. During the early years, the difficulty was getting positions for its members, and now there is a complete reversal—now more positions than members—so Mr. Louis H. Lange, the president, asked me if I would help to bring to your attention that there are some very fine responsible positions open to men over 40 who can qualify.

Older Women Workers

The greater number of placements of older women workers in the April-June quarter of 1942, as compared with the October-December 1941 quarter, has already been noted. As the labor market tightened, the possibilities of the contribution older women could make in the labor field were more widely recognized.

In mid-August of 1943 the Women's Advisory Committee of the War Manpower Commission stressed the tremendous importance of the immediate and rapid development of an "aggressive program" to promote the greater utilization of older women in war activities. The committee's chairman asserted that full utilization was not being made of the older-worker supply, except in a very few areas suffering the most acute labor shortages, and stated that the problem was "especially serious with respect to older women, against whom employment restrictions are much more severe than in the case of older men."

War Manpower Commission reports considered by the Women's Advisory Committee show some increase in the opportunities for employment of older women under current conditions. Not only have older women been accepted in trade and service to replace men and younger women attracted to better-paying jobs, but in many labor-shortage areas women of 50, 60, and in some cases even 70 years of age, are operating machines, working as bench hands, assembling, inspecting, and performing other similar jobs.

These same reports, however, also show that while the situation with respect to acceptance of older women has improved, the improvement has proceeded slowly when compared to the progress made by older men. In many areas, the traditional upper age limits have been raised for men, but not for women. In all cases where the relaxations have applied to both men and women, the gains have been greater for men than for women.⁴

The following selected reports (as of late 1942 and 1943), made by employers concerning older women workers, were compiled by the Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor.

A bag-loading plant in a Southern State has a policy of hiring older men and women. The plant manager said if he had a choice he would hire no woman under 35.

A plant making marine engines on the West Coast stated, "Most of the women employees are middle-aged. Preference is given to those with dependents."

An aircraft plant in the Middle West has hired many older men and women. Some women past 50 were doing good work.

A company in New Jersey making rubber products likes to hire "middle-aged women because they are not as interested in job-shopping" as the younger ones. (Less turnover.)

Another New Jersey factory, manufacturing marine lights, deliberately chose women 30-40 years old for its first women employees, intending to choose the best for supervisors of expanded force of women later. They have been very satisfactory—no absenteeism, better record than men on that.

A Federal Reserve Bank employs older women in the War Bonds Division. They make up in accuracy what they lack in speed. There are 12 women 35-50 years old and they are stable—no turnover and no trouble with absenteeism or tardiness.

One railroad office in Kansas City prefers mature women because younger ones are not responsible.

A wholesale distribution firm in St. Louis prefers mature women and is using middle-aged ones—many former domestic servants—in the packing room of the warehouse and finds them more careful than youngsters.

⁴ Office of War Information. War Manpower Commission. Advance release PM4430, Washington, August 1943.

In a hosiery factory, a group of women, 50, 65 and 70 years of age, are inspecting. Women 50 to 60 are considered satisfactory, but the company would rather not have women much over 60.

Comments made by employers in various industries to field representatives of the same Bureau indicate some of the shortcomings of older women workers. Thus, in aircraft-assembly work older women are reported as not being very satisfactory in the machine shop. A fireworks and pyrotechnics company preferred young girls in the match plant because the jobs require speed in packing, but a foreman in the signal-flare division, where speed was not important, said that he preferred older women because they were "reliable in every way." An electrical products company preferred young women for winding and for jobs requiring finger dexterity and long training.

The Manpower Review of April 1944 reported on a recent appeal by the WMC Women's Advisory Committee for the assistance of women's organizations in securing additional women required for war activities. According to an estimate made by the Commission, the record total by July 1944 should be 18,700,000 women workers, the revised estimates of the number employed at the same date in 1943 being 18,080,000. Women's clubs have been asked to match their efforts with the employment needs and policies of the WMC districts and to work out their campaigns in collaboration with the local office of the Employment Service, which is in a position to know the labor-market situation in its particular area.

Training Older Workers

APPRENTICESHIP

Realizing that the great majority of apprentices as well as the younger all-round skilled men, regardless of the importance of their skills, would be drafted for the armed forces before the termination of the war, the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship (the Apprenticeship Training Service management-labor policy committee) recommended that where there is a need for all-round skilled work at the earliest possible moment, apprentices should be taken from the working groups least likely to be affected by the draft. Such groups are composed of honorably discharged veterans, older workers with family responsibilities, men classified as IV-F, handicapped people, and women (for some trades).

It had been claimed that older men would object to being called "apprentices," also that these "oldsters" could not be expected to subsist on apprentice wages. However, many older employees have been found who, having had some experience in a trade, are glad to receive additional training which qualifies them as all-round skilled workers. Furthermore, their performance in the training process is just about as good as that of the younger apprentices. It was also found that the question of wages is not difficult at all "because the older worker is transferred to an apprenticeship status without loss of pay and is granted credit for past experience, thus entitling him to one or more pay raises even before he completes his apprenticeship."⁸

⁸ War Manpower Review (Washington), April 4, 1944.

AVAILABLE UNIVERSITY COURSES

Among the three groups of applicants under the Engineering Science and Management War Training Program for employment in critical fields are more mature persons who have professional or kindred experience but who are now unemployed or engaged in less-essential industries. For example, construction engineers are retrained for mechanical, electrical, and aeronautical engineering; managers in nonessential lines of activity are given preparation for managerial positions in war work.

The University of Chicago, Stanford University, Harvard University, the University of Pennsylvania, and the Illinois Institute of Technology, among others, have been highly successful in "refurbishing the talents of displaced executives." Typical members of a class for retraining are married men more than 40 years of age having 1 or 2 children. For the most part these men are college graduates. After they have completed approximately 500 hours of class and laboratory work in up-to-date war production techniques, salesmen have been able to serve as production expeditors, investment managers have made good as job-evaluation technicians, and bank tellers have become effective purchasing agents.

Old Age Counseling Centers

The fact that at least two old-age counseling centers have been established even during the war should be a stimulus to older persons having or desiring jobs not only because of the encouraging possibilities of these agencies in the existing crisis but also because their dynamic methods would seem to make for greater post-war job security for clients of such centers.

The two new clinics, one in Los Angeles and the other in New York, are based upon the experience of the successful old-age counseling center in San Francisco started in 1921 by the late Dr. Lillian J. Martin. Her efforts in this field arose from her belief that "our second half century like our first should be both happy and useful, devoted to active living and growing." She constantly stressed the social significance of salvaging the old. In its 15 years of operation the San Francisco center has had 2,874 clients who have taken advantage of the full salvaging method. Many persons, however, came only once or twice for the solution of a particular problem. Each case received special treatment. At the time of Dr. Martin's death she was planning the organization of old-age counseling centers in various cities. The work in San Francisco will be continued by her associate.

Older Aliens

Older persons constituted a heavy proportion of the 3,600,000 aliens in the population of the United States on March 1, 1944, the median age of this foreign group being 51.7 as compared to 29.5* for the population as a whole. A sample study made March 4, 1944, of approximately 500,000 alien registrations, indicated that 28.2 percent (1,015,200) of these foreigners are 60 years of age or over and that 26.5 percent (954,000) are in the 50-59 age group.

* Estimated; in 1940 the median age was 29.0.

The following table suggests the presence of a very substantial number of older alien workers who probably have had more difficulty in securing jobs than native white and naturalized citizens in the same higher age brackets.

TABLE 4.—*Aliens in the United States, March 1, 1944, Classified by Age and Country of Citizenship*

[Source: U. S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Monthly Review, May 1944]

Country of citizenship	All ages	60 and over	50-59	Under 50
All countries.....	3,600,000	1,015,200	954,000	1,630,800
Austria.....	127,100	40,600	43,900	42,600
Germany.....	227,200	55,900	40,100	131,200
Great Britain and Canada.....	438,400	124,900	86,800	226,700
Hungary.....	81,000	29,400	25,700	25,900
Irish Free State.....	67,000	23,300	10,500	33,200
Italy.....	587,500	199,000	168,900	219,600
Mexico.....	439,100	67,000	78,300	278,800
Poland.....	330,100	99,500	130,700	99,900
Russia.....	259,600	95,400	86,800	77,400
All others.....	1,062,000	280,200	284,300	497,500

WMC Policy Regarding Older Workers

In May 1943, over a third of the total number of persons employed were 45 years of age and over, the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission announced in a press release of June 28 of that year. At the same time he urged, as a basis for the full utilization of the older manpower supply, that—

1. Jobs be filled on the basis of individual ability to perform, regardless of age, and that, therefore, maximum hiring age limits which bar many qualified workers be eliminated.

2. Older women be given equal consideration with men for employment, on the basis of individual ability to perform the job.

3. No worker be automatically retired or dismissed on reaching a specified age, without regard to continuing usefulness either at his regular job or at a less exacting one if necessary.

4. Older workers who are eligible for retirement benefits be encouraged to remain at their jobs wherever possible.

5. Older workers be actively recruited in areas of labor shortage along with all other labor resources; provided, however, that employment opportunities for older workers are known to exist.

6. Qualified older persons who are available for employment be absorbed before recourse is had to unnecessary immigration or to less readily available labor resources.

7. Older persons not available for full-time work be used wherever possible for part-time work, where the acuteness of labor shortage warrants use of part-time workers.

8. Maximum age limits for acceptance in war training courses be eliminated in favor of realistic appraisal of the capacities of the individual applicant, wherever placement opportunities exist.

9. Arbitrary upper age limits be eliminated in determining eligibility for public vocational rehabilitation services.

10. Equal wage rates be paid for equal work regardless of age.

11. Special consideration be given by employers to the health and safety of older workers whose physical condition may require extra safeguards.

The War Manpower Review of June 1943 reports that the main determining fact in the older workers' job success is proper placement. Many highly skilled workers too old to keep up the speed of the production line can be used to great advantage as instructors, supervisors, or

inspectors, because they have the well-rounded knowledge and experience that younger workers could not have acquired. Older workers without experience have also been found satisfactory for less-skilled jobs.

Actual experience of employers with older men and women workers has indicated that even in cases where their production per time unit has been relatively less than that of young persons, the experience, judgment, concentration, carefulness, and patience of the older wage earners are compensatory factors "which pay dividends in quality of product, salvage from waste and rejects, and often in long-run output."⁶

The Ageing Process

Examination of recent literature concerning older workers discloses that the conservation, development, and utilization of their abilities is strongly stressed. The emphasis is due in part to the serious need for labor in the war emergency, yet this realization of the value of elderly persons as members of the working force undoubtedly has its implications for post-war reconstruction. Certain conclusions and recommendations of authorities on the subject of this article are noted below:

The insistence, in scientific discussions on old-age problems, that chronological age is not an index to physical age or degree of deterioration is so frequent that it will not be referred to in individual statements which offer reiterative evidence on other matters such as the actual and potential value of older persons in the working world, the advantages of their holding jobs, and the advisability of the continuous development of their abilities. By way of preface to these viewpoints, attention is called to the fact recently brought out by the Assistant Professor of Industrial Research in the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration⁷ that the principal sources of information on older workers are controlled physiological and psychological laboratory research; industrial statistical studies; and clinical observations, especially in industrial medicine. Most of the data derived therefrom are consequently regarded as "fairly trustworthy."

Dr. Alexis Carrel in his book, *Man, the Unknown*, stated: "The ageing man should neither stop working nor retire. Inaction further impoverishes the content of time. Leisure is even more dangerous for the old than for the young. To those whose forces are declining appropriate work should be given. But not rest."

In *New Goals for Old Age*,⁸ Nolan D. C. Lewis, director of the New York State Psychiatric Institute and Hospital, pointed out that "The senile wants a job, wants to be important, wants affection and lots of it, and when he is denied importance, affection, and understanding he becomes a problem." The editor of this symposium holds that, for the great majority of older persons, a job is not only desirable but necessary, provided, of course, that "they are interested in working and physically and temperamentally able to cope with some type of employment." He is of the opinion that expectation of a loss in efficiency accelerates its arrival. He believes that an industry or profession should retire people not on a particular date but over a protracted period, by a "stepping down and retraining process" through the

⁶ War Manpower Commission, Press release (Washington), August 13, 1943.

⁷ *The Older Worker in Industry*, by Ross A. McFarland. (In *Harvard Business Review*, Boston, Summer number, 1943, pp. 505-520.)

⁸ *New Goals for Old Age*. Edited by George Lawton. New York, Columbia University Press, 1943.

medium of a job-reallocation bureau functioning within the industry or profession itself.⁹ He visualizes the possibility of the establishment in every community of a school for older people, adapted to the special requirements of men and women of 60 and even to those in the 80's, "with a vocational counselor doing a tailor-made guidance job." Youth and age should not be pitted against each other. "Cooperation rather than competition will bring out the best in each age grouping."¹⁰

Lawrence K. Frank, a writer on sociological and psychological subjects, formerly vice president of the Josiah Macy, Jr., Foundation, states: "We cannot do a great deal for the older person without at the same time doing a great deal for society."¹¹ In an ideal society, according to Dr. Abram Kardiner (*Psychological Factors in Old Age*), the activities of the aged would never be abruptly cut off but would be shifted in accordance with their changed capacities.

Dr. A. J. Carlson, Professor Emeritus of Physiology, University of Chicago, voices his attitude as follows:

By keeping in idleness older workers who can still perform useful labor we are not only wasting valuable human resources but we are contributing to biologic parasitism in and degeneration of human society. For man is no exception to the biological law that existence without effort, without struggle impairs the species.¹²

It is the conviction of Dr. E. V. Cowdry, "that the problem of ageing will never receive the attention it deserves until the best informed among the millions rapidly ageing themselves see to it that darkness is dispelled by research."¹³

In an address before the Industrial Hygiene Foundation of America, Inc., 1943, Dr. Edward J. Stieglitz,¹⁴ maintained that the war and the changing population structure make it imperative at present and in the coming years for industry to utilize older persons. He conceded that senescence undoubtedly appreciably affects industrial efficiency, but not always in the way of a decline. In the ageing process certain capacities may be developed. It is possible for older men to acquire numerous skills and to be active in various spheres of usefulness. To ignore these potentialities because of somewhat reduced capacity is gross and dangerous extravagance.

The immense loss in industrial efficiency due to relative impairments of health, insufficient to cause absence from work but sufficient to greatly reduce work effectiveness, has been almost wholly neglected thus far. Prevention of much of this loss is possible by the application of individualized constructive medicine. Purely wholesale measures designed to better the work environment alone cannot suffice.

In closing, Dr. Stieglitz suggested that the Industrial Hygiene Foundation of America form a committee or council to make a deeper study of the problems under discussion with a view to making specific proposals.

⁹ *New Goals for Old Age*. Edited by George Lawton. New York, Columbia University Press, 1943.

¹⁰ *Mental Decline and Its Retardation*, by George Lawton. (In *Scientific Monthly*, New York, April 1944, p. 316.)

¹¹ *Scientific Monthly* (New York), July 1943.

¹² *The New Public Health*. (In *Scientific Monthly*, New York, October 1942, p. 360.)

¹³ *Author of Geriatric Medicine* (Philadelphia, 1943) and various other treatises on the problems of ageing.

The Outlook for Older Workers

Most of the students of post-war planning agree that the averting of serious unemployment in the coming peace is a priority problem. The older workers' stake in this matter is of signal importance not only to them but for the national economy.

The evidence in the preceding sections of this article emphasizes the economic value of the work of a large proportion of persons in the higher age brackets, but the experience of many in this population group during the depression years is unforgettable. It is to be hoped that wartime progress in administrative techniques, the advance in the art of industrial management, and the rising interest of social workers, economists, sociologists, psychologists, and physicians in questions confronting the older worker will combine to brighten his future fortunes.

Of promise is the recent development of geriatrics (the medical care of older people), gerontology (the study of the ageing process), and gerontotherapy (the direct treatment of the ageing process), which foreshadows a new type of public health, described by Dr. E. V. Cowdry as "a union of what is best in medicine and sociology."¹³ The more extensive salvaging of older workers would seem to call for no greater miracles of science than those already of record in other fields.

Among the concrete indications of a more satisfactory tomorrow for men and women no longer young are the existence of a Unit on Gerontology in the National Institute of Health and the survey being undertaken by the trustees of the Nuffield Foundation in Great Britain of the individual, social, and medical problems of ageing.¹⁴

¹³ *The New Public Health*. (In *Scientific Monthly*, New York, 1942, p. 356.)

¹⁴ *Journal of the American Medical Association* (Chicago), April 8, 1944, p. 1075.

Employment and Labor Conditions

Employment in Government-Owned, Privately Operated New War Plants¹

CURTAILMENT of war production, which began at the end of 1943, is already creating many problems for workers, employers, and the Government. The major problem at present is the reemployment of workers who have been affected by "cut-backs." As many plants in tight labor-market areas still need workers, the problem is not yet of large proportions, but will be critical in the immediate post-war period. The termination of contracts and the speedy disposal of Government industrial facilities are other pressing post-war problems.

Some light is thrown on these problems by a special survey of certain important aspects of 397 Government-owned, privately operated new war plants. These plants employed over 2 million persons and represent about 8 billion dollars of public investment. This study, conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in cooperation with the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, consisted in relating the information on employment, pay rolls, and man-hours as of September 1943 to War Production Board information on investment in the facilities studied. It covered the precise geographical location of these Government-owned plants, the amount of investment in each, the type of production, and the number of men and women workers employed.

The general criteria for inclusion of a plant in this survey were that (1) it was a new war plant with a public investment of at least \$500,000, (2) the private investment in the new facility did not exceed 5 percent of the total public investment, and (3) the construction portion of the total cost amounted to at least \$200,000. The financial limit in regard to private investment was stipulated with the idea that, where there was only a minimum private investment, the disposition problem would be the concern of the Government primarily. The construction-cost minimum of \$200,000 was used as a basis for separating new war plants from those in which public investment went mainly into machinery and equipment for existing plants.

Certain other plants not meeting these criteria were included, however. There were 15 plants, mostly in the shipbuilding and aircraft industries, in which the private investment ranged as high as 9.3 percent of public investment, but in which the public investment was so large as to make it likely that large numbers of workers would be affected by demobilization. There were 7 Defense Corporation plants,

¹ Prepared by Clara F. Schloss of the Employment Statistics Division. Abe Rothman of this Division formulated and directed the preparation of the tabulations. M. Elizabeth Fite of the Post-War Labor Problems Division developed the criteria on which the sample was based and participated throughout in the development of the study. This project was conducted under the general direction of D. H. Davenport of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and D. Stevens Wilson of the Department of Commerce.

the construction costs of which were less than \$200,000; these were added when it was determined from a recent Defense Plant Corporation listing that the facilities actually were new plants.

Wage-Earner Employment, September 1943

The present analysis is confined to 383 manufacturing plants, although the survey covered a total of 397 establishments, of which 14 were mines and modification centers. As most of the Government investment went into the munitions industries, 97.5 percent of the workers in Government-owned, privately operated plants—comprising one-fifth of all wage earners in the munitions industries in September 1943—were engaged in manufacturing the implements of war. Wage-earner employment in the 383 Government-owned, privately operated new manufacturing plants in September 1943 and the ratio of reported wage earners in such plants to all wage earners in the group were as follows:

	<i>All manufacturing</i>	<i>Munitions industries</i>
Number of wage earners in reporting Government-owned, privately operated plants.....	1, 760, 000	1, 718, 000
Estimated number of all wage earners.....	13, 935, 000	8, 077, 000
Percent of all workers in Government-owned, privately operated plants.....	12. 6	21. 3

MAJOR INDUSTRY GROUPS

The transportation-equipment group employed 70 percent of the wage earners in the Government-owned, privately operated new plants. This group consists of establishments engaged in shipbuilding and in manufacturing airplanes, railroad equipment, and some ordnance items such as tanks and combat vehicles. The group as a whole employed 2¼ million wage earners in September, more than half of whom were in the Government-owned plants. Any curtailment of the aircraft and shipbuilding programs would, therefore, be of primary interest to the 1¼ million workers in the Government-owned transportation-equipment group of plants.

The chemicals and allied products group, which includes the small-arms ammunition industry, accounted for 11 percent of the employees in the Government-owned plants. More than a quarter of all the wage earners in the chemicals group were in the 82 plants included in this survey. Because of the accumulation of large stock piles of small-arms ammunition, this portion of the chemicals group has been reducing employment since July 1943. In September 1943, four-fifths of the wage earners in the small-arms ammunition industry were in Government-owned, privately operated plants. Since this industry was among the first to be curtailed, the problem of reemploying its workers is confronting the Government at the present time. Of the 4 plants which have been shut down since this industry has been cutting back, 2 were included in the Bureau's survey.

The iron and steel group is the only other one employing more than 150,000 of the wage earners reporting in this survey. Almost 9 percent of the 1,760,000 wage earners were in plants in this group. The 155,000 wage earners in the reporting Government-owned, privately operated iron and steel plants comprise 9 percent of this group's total employment (table 1).

Employment and Labor Conditions

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TABLE 1.—Wage-Earner Employment in 383 Government-Owned, Privately Operated New Manufacturing Plants, September 1943, by Major Industry Group

Industry group	Number of Government-owned plants reporting	Wage earners in Government-owned plants		Estimated number of all wage earners (in thousands)	Wage earners in Government-owned plants as percent of group total
		Number (in thousands)	Percent		
All industry groups.....	383	1,760	100.0	13,935	12.6
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	131	1,231	69.9	2,299	53.5
Chemicals and allied products.....	82	192	10.9	738	26.0
Iron and steel and their products.....	62	155	8.8	1,721	9.0
Automobiles.....	7	51	2.9	734	6.9
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	45	38	2.2	417	9.1
Electrical machinery.....	15	27	1.5	725	3.7
Machinery, except electrical.....	18	20	1.1	1,245	1.6
Other.....	23	46	2.7	6,033	.8

TABLE 2.—Employment and Public Investment in 397 Government-Owned, Privately Operated Plants, September 1943

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS INDUSTRY CLASSIFICATIONS

Industry group	Number of reports	Number of wage earners	Number of women earners	Total number of employees	Total number of women	Public investment (in millions)
All industry groups.....	397	1,778,347	469,668	2,096,795	599,070	\$7,988.6
Manufacturing:						
Paper and allied products.....	1	549	178	658	220	.5
Chemicals and allied products.....	82	191,427	68,877	225,430	81,781	2,799.6
Products of petroleum and coal.....	7	1,151	79	1,796	209	64.8
Rubber products.....	1	4,139	2,070	4,477	2,210	18.9
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	2	697	378	762	433	2.1
Iron and steel and their products.....	62	154,486	65,122	183,248	76,854	1,220.6
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	45	38,269	4,694	46,276	7,188	841.9
Electrical machinery.....	15	27,326	15,611	34,107	18,402	102.6
Machinery, except electrical.....	18	19,914	5,525	23,558	6,944	100.7
Automobiles.....	7	51,451	18,858	60,598	22,154	150.5
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	131	1,231,160	266,528	1,445,862	355,943	2,490.8
Miscellaneous industries.....	12	39,333	16,305	45,973	18,906	129.3
Nonmanufacturing ¹	14	18,445	5,443	24,050	7,817	66.3

WAR PRODUCTION BOARD INDUSTRY CLASSIFICATIONS

All industry groups.....	397	1,778,347	469,668	2,096,795	599,070	\$7,988.6
Manufacturing:						
Aircraft assembly.....	47	399,832	153,319	510,679	202,771	848.2
Aircraft engines.....	15	101,123	27,561	111,719	30,842	764.3
Aircraft parts.....	35	97,005	29,988	116,999	37,937	833.0
Shipbuilding.....	57	708,440	85,156	798,068	120,375	637.7
Shipbuilding, parts and accessories.....	4	9,297	2,714	12,477	3,809	57.1
Combat and other motor vehicles.....	5	10,695	2,014	13,485	3,066	160.6
Guns and fire-control equipment.....	15	40,619	12,315	49,410	15,487	178.6
Ammunition, shells, bombs, etc.....	28	164,653	77,255	185,310	86,127	761.6
Explosives.....	22	49,057	5,774	63,221	10,506	1,504.0
Ammunition assembling and loading.....	24	87,334	44,535	103,696	51,307	756.0
Aluminum, except castings.....	15	11,377	471	13,369	813	229.1
Aluminum castings.....	15	14,417	3,144	16,641	4,088	292.1
Magnesium and products.....	15	12,978	729	16,969	1,925	348.6
Communication equipment.....	9	13,685	9,810	16,903	11,223	15.3
Synthetic rubber.....	20	5,912	529	7,765	1,015	281.3
Aviation gasoline.....	3	698	12	1,150	89	15.3
Iron and steel.....	16	12,879	1,515	15,453	2,573	189.4
Other nonferrous metals.....	3	1,950	239	2,151	314	13.1
Machinery and electrical equipment, excluding communication equipment.....	9	7,024	2,554	8,352	3,151	51.8
Other chemicals.....	27	8,656	592	11,677	1,502	445.0
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	10	20,057	9,442	21,116	10,093	70.9
Nonmanufacturing ¹	3	659		785	57	15.6

¹ Mining and modification centers.

Further industrial details regarding all 397 plants included in this survey are presented in table 2. The data are classified first according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics major industry groups and then according to War Production Board industry classifications.

REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION

In actual numbers, the impact of demobilization will be most severe in the East North Central region (Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin) where 420,000 wage earners are employed in Government-owned, privately operated plants. The Pacific Coast region (Washington, Oregon, and California) will be a close second with 383,000 wage earners, or 29 percent of the total employment in that region; it will probably be the most critical area. The East North Central region had only 11 percent of its wage earners in the Government-owned plants, but the West South Central region (Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas), which accounted for only 184,000 wage earners, had 31 percent of all its workers in Government-owned, privately operated establishments.

Data on wage-earner employment in the 383 Government-owned, privately operated new manufacturing plants in September 1943, by region, are shown in the accompanying statement.

	Wage earners in reporting Government-owned plants	
	Number	Percent of all manufacturing wage earners
All regions.....	1,760,000	12.6
West South Central.....	184,000	30.7
Pacific.....	383,000	29.1
Mountain.....	35,000	25.9
West North Central.....	168,000	21.5
South Atlantic.....	190,000	12.2
East North Central.....	420,000	10.9
East South Central.....	69,000	10.8
New England.....	99,000	6.8
Middle Atlantic.....	212,000	5.9

Employment and investment data, by States, for the 397 plants covered (including the mining and modification centers) are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Employment and Public Investment in 397 Government-Owned, Privately Operated Plants, by State, September 1943

State	Number of wage earners	Number of women wage earners	Total number of employees	Total number of women	Public investment (in millions)
All States.....	1,778,347	469,668	2,096,795	599,070	\$7,988.6
Alabama.....	36,438	2,711	42,992	5,150	239.1
Arkansas.....	11,364	5,176	13,080	5,884	161.3
Arizona.....	7,556	2,802	10,182	3,792	55.2
California.....	258,112	54,120	299,426	73,915	427.1
Colorado.....	16,348	7,942	18,989	9,210	60.7
Connecticut.....	18,714	3,164	21,041	3,961	74.6
Delaware.....	9,671	1,207	10,866	1,732	14.8
Florida.....	43,909	3,040	50,181	5,158	42.8
Georgia.....	37,063	7,517	44,905	11,133	94.7
Illinois.....	82,492	22,853	102,281	30,890	820.4
Indiana.....	67,946	28,433	103,790	29,094	549.1
Iowa.....	19,003	8,041	21,600	9,402	92.7
Kansas.....	42,285	15,950	54,598	21,429	298.0
Kentucky.....	10,308	2,852	13,847	3,969	128.0
Louisiana.....	29,123	3,781	34,269	5,998	198.8
Maine.....	25,341	3,116	27,948	3,919	24.2
Maryland.....	60,179	10,200	65,263	12,944	59.0
Massachusetts.....	39,094	8,131	46,725	10,822	101.3
Michigan.....	89,012	28,301	100,359	32,091	413.0
Minnesota.....	24,841	11,360	27,925	12,647	94.4
Mississippi.....	10,076	1,932	11,834	2,534	29.6
Missouri.....	74,305	31,516	87,083	35,806	449.8
Nebraska.....	13,351	3,701	17,171	5,781	85.7
New Jersey.....	38,632	7,488	44,268	9,308	66.8
New Mexico.....	302	365	3	2.6
Nevada.....	4,659	105	6,307	677	132.9
New York.....	107,941	37,787	129,451	46,184	349.4
North Carolina.....	21,813	4,294	23,841	5,228	42.6
Ohio.....	132,660	46,845	156,724	55,985	739.4
Oklahoma.....	33,128	14,751	44,225	20,160	166.9
Oregon.....	62,492	15,368	72,560	19,593	63.9
Pennsylvania.....	65,673	13,653	81,013	19,394	365.9
Rhode Island.....	15,449	1,046	16,659	1,652	25.9
South Carolina.....	2,228	36	2,628	158	4.5
Tennessee.....	15,624	4,517	20,772	6,296	242.8
Texas.....	112,875	28,363	134,609	36,827	538.1
Utah.....	10,307	5,684	11,885	6,285	44.4
Virginia.....	8,790	2,302	9,886	2,582	102.3
Washington.....	62,763	12,235	72,601	16,246	177.0
West Virginia.....	6,431	915	7,702	1,809	197.2
Wisconsin.....	28,718	10,922	33,353	13,074	209.9
Wyoming.....	1,531	811	1,593	687	2.7

WOMEN WAGE EARNERS

It is likely that some of the employees in Government-owned, privately operated new plants will not be interested in finding other jobs after the war. The voluntary retirement of women from the labor force in the immediate post-war period must be taken into account. The 383 Government-owned plants in September 1943 employed 464,000 women, or more than a quarter of the total employment in such plants. The proportion of women in manufacturing as a whole and in the munitions industries, as well as in the Government-owned, privately operated new manufacturing plants, is shown below:

	All manu- facturing	Munitions industries
Number of women wage earners in 383 reporting Government-owned manufacturing plants.....	464,000	447,000
Estimated number of all women wage earners.....	4,459,000	2,026,000
Women as percent of all wage earners—		
In Government-owned plants.....	26.4	26.0
In all plants.....	32.0	25.1

When comparison is made for individual groups of industries, the Government-owned, privately operated plants are found to employ an unusually large proportion of women. In the iron and steel group, 42 percent of the wage earners in the reporting plants in September 1943 were women, as compared with 20 percent for the industry as a whole. In the electrical-machinery group the respective figures were 59 and 47 percent. Only in the transportation-equipment group was the proportion of women in Government-owned plants as low as in the privately owned plants. The proportion of women wage earners in 297 Government-owned, privately operated new manufacturing plants in September 1943 is shown in the following statement, for the major industry groups.

	Number of women wage earners in Government-owned plants	Women as percent of all wage earners in—	
		Government-owned plants	Industry group
Transportation-equipment industry.....	267, 000	21. 7	21. 6
Chemicals industry.....	69, 000	35. 9	31. 6
Iron and steel industry.....	65, 000	41. 9	20. 3
Automobile industry.....	19, 000	37. 3	25. 5
Electrical-machinery industry.....	16, 000	59. 3	47. 2

Public Investment in Government-Owned Plants

The total public investment in the 383 Government-owned, privately operated manufacturing plants amounted to 7.9 billion dollars. More than a third, 2.7 billion dollars, of this investment was in plants in the East North Central region which employed the largest number of wage earners. Another quarter, 2 billion dollars, was divided equally between the West South Central and West North Central regions which together employed 352 thousand wage earners (table 4). In contrast to this was the Pacific Coast region which employed 383 thousand wage earners in Government-owned plants but had a public investment of only 664 million dollars, or 8 percent of the total.

TABLE 4.—Amount of Public Investment in 383 Government-Owned, Privately Operated New Manufacturing Plants, September 1943, by Major Industry Group and by Region

Industry group	Public investment		Region	Public investment	
	Amount (in millions)	Per cent of total		Amount (in millions)	Per cent of total
Chemicals and allied products.....	\$2, 800	35. 3	East North Central.....	\$2, 726	34. 4
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	2, 491	31. 4	West South Central.....	1, 062	13. 4
Iron and steel and their products.....	1, 220	15. 4	West North Central.....	1, 013	12. 8
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	842	10. 6	Middle Atlantic.....	782	9. 9
Automobiles.....	150	1. 9	Pacific.....	664	8. 4
Electrical machinery.....	103	1. 3	East South Central.....	624	7. 9
Machinery, except electrical.....	100	1. 3	South Atlantic.....	558	7. 0
Other.....	216	2. 8	Mountain.....	267	3. 3
Total.....	7, 922	100. 0	New England.....	226	2. 9
			Total.....	7, 922	100. 0

The disparity between the amount of public money invested and the number of wage earners is most striking when comparison is made by major industry groups. Aircraft plants and shipyards, for instance, are constructed and made ready for large-scale operation with only a

minimum of investment. For this reason the transportation-equipment group, with less than one-third of the total public investment, employed almost 70 percent of the wage earners. Similarly, the automobile group (which is also producing aircraft) employed 3 percent of the wage earners, but had about 2 percent of the public investment.

At the other extreme are the nonferrous metals and chemicals groups. Plants in the former group received more than 10 percent of the public investment but employed only 2 percent of the workers; and plants in the latter group received the largest share of the public investment—35 percent—but employed only 11 percent of the wage earners.

Detailed information on employment and public investment in all the 397 plants (manufacturing and nonmanufacturing), classified by amount of public funds invested, is given in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Employment and Public Investment in 397 Government-Owned, Privately Operated Plants, by Amount of Public Investment, September 1943*

Public investment group	Number of wage earners	Number of women wage earners	Total number of employees	Total number of women	Public investment (in millions)
All groups.....	1,778,347	469,668	2,006,795	599,070	\$7,988.6
\$500,000-\$740,000.....	11,546	3,056	13,682	3,808	9.3
\$750,000-\$999,000.....	4,601	2,003	5,337	2,281	9.7
\$1,000,000-\$1,999,000.....	61,793	13,680	69,540	16,468	54.1
\$2,000,000-\$2,999,000.....	39,205	12,487	45,541	15,182	62.4
\$3,000,000-\$3,999,000.....	45,459	8,263	55,410	12,461	88.6
\$4,000,000-\$4,999,000.....	16,700	2,710	18,935	3,445	67.6
\$5,000,000-\$7,499,000.....	104,149	22,631	126,247	30,575	214.6
\$7,500,000-\$9,999,000.....	66,820	18,126	78,841	22,840	225.8
\$10,000,000-\$14,999,000.....	183,077	33,215	213,011	45,127	445.0
\$15,000,000-\$19,999,000.....	183,805	44,140	211,703	56,131	575.6
\$20,000,000-\$24,999,000.....	289,481	63,286	338,453	83,878	778.4
\$25,000,000-\$37,499,000.....	338,917	85,922	399,096	110,031	1,408.4
\$37,500,000-\$49,999,000.....	124,809	51,633	162,116	69,104	616.8
\$50,000,000-\$74,999,000.....	115,738	43,763	140,183	53,767	1,174.2
\$75,000,000-\$99,999,000.....	96,630	33,844	109,077	38,223	1,083.3
\$100,000,000-\$149,999,000.....	84,912	29,449	94,702	32,644	844.4
\$150,000,000 and over.....	10,705	1,460	14,921	3,045	333.4

In addition to the data on employment, industrial classification, geographical location, and investment, 387 manufacturing and non-manufacturing plants furnished information on pay rolls and man-hours worked. These plants employed 1,754,610 wage earners who received \$97,869,536 for a total of 81,720,698 man-hours worked during 1 week, usually that ending nearest the 15th of the month. In table 6, the weekly pay roll and man-hour data are presented by War Production Board industrial classification. Table 7 presents these data by State.

TABLE 6.—Weekly Pay Rolls and Man-Hours in 387¹ Government-Owned, Privately Operated Plants, by WPB Industry Group, September 1943

WPB Industry group	Number of wage earners	Pay roll in 1 week	Number of man-hours worked in week
All groups.....	1,754,610	\$97,869,536	81,720,698
Manufacturing:			
Aircraft assembly.....	387,246	20,560,590	18,378,679
Aircraft engines.....	101,123	6,329,537	4,913,240
Aircraft parts.....	97,005	5,693,478	4,545,876
Shipbuilding.....	708,440	44,002,335	32,506,891
Shipbuilding, parts and accessories.....	9,297	488,585	439,141
Combat and other motor vehicles.....	10,695	631,928	522,436
Guns and fire-control equipment.....	31,692	1,949,283	1,475,368
Ammunition, shells, bombs, etc.....	164,653	7,324,232	7,649,922
Explosives.....	49,057	2,366,033	2,303,056
Ammunition, assembly and loading.....	87,334	3,269,774	3,898,320
Aluminum, excluding castings.....	9,968	469,880	461,907
Aluminum castings.....	13,602	578,921	596,247
Magnesium and products.....	12,978	755,712	622,550
Communication equipment.....	13,685	567,489	608,875
Synthetic rubber.....	5,912	294,554	279,320
Aviation gasoline.....	698	37,548	31,963
Iron and steel.....	12,879	707,227	620,334
Other nonferrous metals, excluding communication equipment.....	1,950	90,747	88,245
Machinery and electrical equipment.....	7,024	341,029	327,521
Other chemicals.....	8,656	422,211	400,756
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	20,057	954,493	1,016,569
Nonmanufacturing ²	659	33,944	31,005

¹ 10 firms did not report pay-roll and man-hour data.² Mining and modification centers.TABLE 7.—Weekly Pay Rolls and Man-Hours in 387¹ Government-Owned, Privately Operated Plants, by State, September 1943

State	Number of wage earners	Pay roll in 1 week	Number of man-hours worked in week	State	Number of wage earners	Pay roll in 1 week	Number of man-hours worked in week
All States.....	1,754,610	\$97,869,536	81,720,698	Missouri.....	74,305	\$3,350,695	3,449,119
Alabama.....	33,898	1,692,670	1,655,830	Nebraska.....	13,351	676,986	627,311
Arkansas.....	11,364	390,028	469,064	New Jersey.....	38,632	2,306,871	1,848,071
Arizona.....	7,556	375,267	374,496	New Mexico.....	302	17,065	13,217
California.....	258,112	16,221,812	11,632,996	Nevada.....	4,659	328,642	280,646
Colorado.....	15,084	687,556	712,833	New York.....	106,532	5,962,691	5,297,444
Connecticut.....	18,714	1,102,813	933,449	North Carolina.....	21,813	1,094,717	979,889
Delaware.....	9,671	544,778	435,368	Ohio.....	131,477	7,210,644	6,155,669
Florida.....	43,909	2,572,927	2,016,008	Oklahoma.....	33,128	1,601,601	1,534,435
Georgia.....	37,063	2,169,680	1,755,360	Oregon.....	62,492	4,179,942	2,746,090
Illinois.....	82,492	4,478,314	3,961,574	Pennsylvania.....	64,858	3,723,075	3,294,505
Indiana.....	87,946	5,026,127	4,232,749	Rhode Island.....	15,449	865,341	681,977
Iowa.....	19,003	833,765	896,785	South Carolina.....	2,228	138,076	120,173
Kansas.....	42,285	2,292,441	2,077,469	Tennessee.....	15,624	586,838	692,889
Kentucky.....	9,724	438,117	465,029	Texas.....	110,922	5,462,820	5,115,688
Louisiana.....	29,123	1,677,521	1,363,631	Utah.....	10,307	444,263	469,690
Maine.....	25,341	1,293,952	1,035,519	Virginia.....	8,790	364,122	405,579
Maryland.....	60,179	3,448,687	2,705,067	Washington.....	62,763	3,788,223	2,774,791
Massachusetts.....	39,094	2,086,312	1,679,644	West Virginia.....	6,431	318,575	289,301
Michigan.....	80,085	5,208,190	3,749,550	Wisconsin.....	28,718	1,337,915	1,323,647
Minnesota.....	21,110	1,095,083	1,033,006				
Mississippi.....	10,076	474,394	445,566				

¹ 10 firms did not report pay-roll and man-hour data.

Labor Conditions in French Indo-China¹

Summary

THE population of Indo-China is extremely varied; physical characteristics, language, religion, the degree of civilization, and the mode of life vary from district to district. The three main groups of the population are the Annamites who form much the largest group, the Cambodians, and the Thai. French supremacy over the several kingdoms of Indo-China was established between 1862 and 1884 and the Indo-Chinese Federation or Union was created in 1887. In keeping with traditional French colonial policy, Indo-China was developed strictly as an appendage to the economy of France and has long been known as one of the most intensively exploited colonial areas in the world. Rice is the chief agricultural product, although a considerable amount of corn and rubber are grown. The country possesses valuable natural resources. The coal reserves, chiefly of high-grade anthracite, are very large and there are many valuable forests.

French Indo-China had a population in 1936 of approximately 23,030,000, including 42,260 Europeans and 326,000 Chinese. The peasants, numbering more than 18 million, depended for their meager livelihood principally on rice growing and handicraft industries, while about 1,350,000 persons were dependent solely upon handicrafts. The wage-earning group was very small, numbering only about 220,000.

In 1937 the average daily wage of skilled workers in the north was 0.63 piaster, of male laborers, 0.29 piaster, and of female laborers, 0.19 piaster. In the south the average was 1.17 piasters, 0.61 piaster, and 0.42 piaster, respectively. The piaster, which was equivalent to 10 French francs, was worth about 39 cents in United States currency at that time. Daily wages of male workers therefore ranged from about 11 to 24 cents in the north and from 25 to 46 cents in the south. The average for female workers was from 7 to 16 cents. The 10-hour day and 60-hour week prevailed in Indo-China until the enactment of a French law in 1936 which provided for a progressive reduction in hours to 8 per day as of January 1, 1938. After war broke out in Europe the French legislation lengthening hours was applied in Indo-China by local orders.

After the collapse of France, in June 1940, the Japanese by successive encroachments and through agreements concluded with the Vichy Government obtained a wide measure of control over the material resources of the country and over the people. The Annamites, the predominant race both in numbers and ability, were reduced virtually to the position of slaves who were required to work for the establishment of Japanese control over Asia.

Economic Background Under French Rule

French Indo-China includes the Colony of Cochinchina, the protectorates of Annam, Cambodia, Tonking, and Laos, and the territory of Kwangchowan on the coast of the peninsula leased from the Chinese Government in 1898 under a 99-year lease. The

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division by Anice L. Whitney.

French occupation of the country began in 1862 when the King of Annam ceded Cochin-China to France. French intervention in the affairs of Annam, which began as early as 1787, culminated in a treaty signed in 1884 by which a French protectorate was established over that section of the country. The protectorate of Cambodia was established in 1863, that of Tonking in 1884, and the Laos territory in 1893. The Indo-Chinese Federation or Union was created in 1887.

Indo-China forms part of the region known as the "rice granary of the Orient." French capital investment in the colony was concerned with the production of agricultural and mineral raw materials and ruled out the development of any local industries which might in any way compete with the products of French manufacturers. As a result, the great majority of Indo-China's population remained in a state of extreme poverty, dependent for their meager livelihood on rice growing and handicraft industries, the only market for imported manufactures being provided by the European residents, the wealthy Chinese, and the small group of Europeanized natives.

In spite of the opposition to the development of modern machine manufacturing, industries have developed in recent years, and several have introduced Western mechanical techniques for the processing of certain agricultural products.

Only a limited degree of industrial development was possible under a French Administration that was strongly opposed to any attempt by French, as well as by native or Chinese, capital to develop secondary industries. There was, however, an increasing recognition in France after the world depression that some form of industrialization program was essential for the solution of the acute problem of unemployment in the densely populated delta regions. Also, it was argued that such a program would raise the purchasing power of the Indo-Chinese people and thereby enable them to buy more French goods. French manufacturing interests, however, maintained that the markets for the proposed new industries would not be sufficiently large to justify the capital investment required and that industrialization would increase rather than lessen unemployment by wiping out native handicraft industries.

By 1938 the French Government had slightly modified its attitude toward industrialization in Indo-China to the extent of approving a program for the economic development of the colonial empire formulated by the Minister of Colonies, but, as finally adopted, the plan for Indo-China was an extremely limited one.

The most important agricultural crop, as already stated, is rice. The area under cultivation had grown from about 9 million acres when the French came, to nearly 14 million acres in 1937, Indo-China having become the third rice-growing country in the world. The area under corn had grown from about 25,000 acres in 1900 to over 1,200,000 acres in 1937, as a result of the efforts of the French Government to ward off the dangers which would develop from dependence on a single crop, and the native crops of tapioca, soy beans, and sweet-potatoes also had a remarkable development. One important step toward diversification was taken when rubber planting was established, production having risen from 35 tons in 1911 to 50,000 tons in 1936.

The country possesses valuable natural resources. The coal reserves, chiefly of high-grade anthracite, have been estimated to total 20 billion tons. There are substantial tin deposits in Tonking and Laos, and smaller amounts of iron, tungsten, manganese, antimony, zinc, and lead. The early years of the French occupation saw the investment of large sums, first in the search for deposits, and then in their development. However, coal has always held the dominant position in Indo-Chinese mining and the exploitation of the other mineral resources of the country has been carried out on a relatively small scale.

Indo-China is divided into three main economic areas: (1) The territory tributary to Saigon (Cochin-China, Cambodia, Southern Laos, and Annam south of Cape Varella) which, apart from the fisheries on the coast and the interior lakes, is almost entirely agricultural, being one of the great rice regions of the world. (2) The region tributary to Haiphong (Tonking and the three northern districts of Annam) which is devoted to agriculture, mining, and manufacture. (3) Central Annam (the region between Porte d'Annam and Cape Varella), with Tourane as the principal port, which is mainly agricultural but is not a great rice-growing district. High mountain ranges in the north provide valuable tropical hardwoods, bamboo, lacs, herbs, and essential oils. Fishing is a secondary but important native occupation, as fish forms a major article of diet, while a considerable surplus is exported to neighboring areas.

Racial and Geographic Distribution of the Population

French Indo-China has an area of about 740,400 square kilometers and a population in 1936 of approximately 23,030,000, including 42,260 Europeans and assimilated persons, 22,655,000 natives, 326,000 Chinese, and 5,400 Indians and other Asiatics. In 1937, the Europeans and naturalized persons numbered 38,880, of whom 23,903 were males and 14,977 females. In addition there were 3,465 foreigners of whom 231 were Japanese, 138 British, 94 Americans, and 3,002 other nationalities.

Tonking and Cochin-China are the most densely populated areas, averaging 75 and 71 inhabitants per square kilometer, respectively; while the average in Annam is 38, in Cambodia, 17, and in Laos, 4. However, certain areas, particularly North Annam and the Tonking delta, are greatly overcrowded. In the delta lands of Tonking the number of inhabitants exceeds 500 per square kilometer.

Natives.—The population of Indo-China is extremely varied in its characteristics and mode of life. The lack of unity is largely accounted for by the topography of the country which presents a striking contrast between lowlands and highlands. The lack of any easy means of communication between the mountainous sections and the lowlands has had the result that every part of Indo-China lives more or less its own life, and local interests are of much more importance than the general interest.

The three main groups of the population are the Annamites who are the most intelligent element of the population and who form much the largest group (about 16½ million), the Cambodians (about 2½ million), and the Thai who are Mongolians, originally coming from

China (about 1,400,000). The mountain peoples of Tonking and Upper Laos fall into four groups—the Man, the Meo, the Lolo, and the Muong—whose social organization is extremely rudimentary. The highlanders of the Annam Range are a group of primitive peoples whose political organization has not progressed beyond the clan stage. They are estimated to number between 400,000 and 600,000. In addition there is a numerically small Chinese element—about 400,000—which plays an important part, however, particularly in commerce.

The Chinese.—There was a constant stream of Chinese immigration between the ports of China and Annam for a great many years. In most cases these immigrants arrived in groups and then spread through the towns and district markets, to which they were attracted by the growing trade. The Chinese showed remarkable aptitudes for trading and money lending, and these characteristics, which contrasted sharply with the carelessness and simplicity of the Annamites in money matters, made it all the more easy for them to do business. Before the arrival of the French in Indo-China, they had established a hold over the whole country, owing both to their capacities and to the favor with which they were received and treated. They received the same civil rights as the Annamites and were entirely free to acquire and dispose of property and to carry on business. The Annamite Government, moved by political reasons and the desire to facilitate its administration, grouped the Chinese in communities or "bangs" under the orders of chiefs who were responsible for keeping order and paying taxes.

The Chinese were quick to take advantage of the Annamite's perpetual need for credit facilities. They lent money at 60 percent per annum and took over the rice crops of defaulting debtors. They soon had a monopoly of the salt, alcohol, and opium markets and almost a monopoly of the export trade in rice. By entangling the Annamite population in an inextricable state of indebtedness, they soon succeeded in capturing practically the entire trade of the country.

The French occupation did not change this state of affairs to any appreciable extent. The Chinese, firmly established in the country for many years and speaking the Annamite language, seemed in many respects to provide a useful link between the victors and the vanquished. They thus became the caterers to the French army of occupation, and the French Administration even farmed out indirect taxation to them. The framework of the communities (the former "bangs") was retained by the French, as this system had the advantage of simplifying the relations of the authorities with the Chinese.

A Franco-Chinese Treaty of 1930, effective in August 1935, guaranteed the Chinese in Indo-China treatment at least equal to the most-favored nation there. As a result they were entitled to the same rights in the law courts as the British or Americans. This placed them in a more favorable position than the Annamites, particularly in regard to labor legislation. The community system was strengthened by an order of the Governor-General, in December 1935, which recognized the communities as incorporated institutions, a right which had not previously been conferred on them.

Land Ownership and Customs

The system of property ownership in the Annamite countries results from the organization of the commune and the family. The village community, which is the basic administrative unit of the country, is a very strong corporative body and owns part of the land constituting its territory. The communal land, aside from the land used for pagodas, is distributed in equal shares and according to their qualifications to each member of the collective association which forms the village. The land which does not form part of the property of the village is divided among the registered members of the community and each head of a family possesses authority and prerogatives in his own family but is limited as regards the administration of his property by restrictions similar to those applying to communal land. He may not dispose of the family pagoda (*huong hoa*) the income from which is devoted to ancestor worship and is left to the eldest son. The remainder of the land is divided equally among all the male children. The fact that the registered members of the community are obliged to perpetuate the worship of their ancestors and to care for their tombs makes it very difficult to acquire land in prosperous communities.

Those whose names are not on the village register do not possess any land of their own. They merely have the right to use their share of the village land which is distributed every 3 years. These persons and any strangers constitute a floating population from which are recruited the craftsmen, the workers for industry and public works, and some of the agricultural workers for the concessions.

The Working Population

INDEPENDENT WORKERS

Handicraftsmen.—Before the French occupation the craftsman played an essential part in the Indo-Chinese communities. The communities were predominantly agricultural, and then, as now, the cultivation of rice was the basic economic activity of the country. As there was very little division of labor, and the requirements of the inhabitants were few and easily satisfied, every peasant was at the same time, to some extent, a craftsman. He could make all that he required for his personal needs. All the work was done in accordance with traditions and religious rites, and the technique was so simple that a very short period of training was sufficient.

In addition to these rural craftsmen, however, there was a body of more definitely specialized craftsmen, whose existence was due to the need for greater technical skill or the localization of the raw materials in particular geographical areas.

Another group of skilled craftsmen, of higher but equally ancient standing and equally bound by tradition, existed in several towns where their work was closely connected with certain religious or social activities. It was the artistic industries, particularly flourishing in Cambodia, which were carried on by these craftsmen who were either monks or retainers of the aristocracy.

The settlement of French colonists in Indo-China had practically no influence on the life of the rural inhabitants, who continued to

rely on their home industries for their household needs and clothing. The survival of the traditional handicraft industries must be viewed, therefore, as the result primarily of their suitability to local needs and the inability of the masses of the population, especially in rural areas, to afford the substitutes for native wares offered by overseas industry. There has been a good deal of industrial specialization, principally in the deltas of the north, where it was encouraged by the excessively dense population. Most of these craftsmen own land which they cultivate themselves. Thus, their industrial work is considered as temporary work and as soon as they can acquire enough land they devote themselves entirely to agriculture.

In the delta regions of the north the preparation of certain foodstuffs was found, according to a study made in 1939, to rank first among the rural industries as far as the number of persons employed was concerned. The textile industries were the next most important of the rural industries in terms of the number of persons employed, and even more important than the foodstuffs industry in terms of the value of commercial production. It was estimated, in 1938, that approximately 1,350,000 persons were completely dependent upon traditional handicraft industries for their livelihood, while a very large proportion of the farming population was compelled to seek some supplementary income from household or handicraft industries.

The peasants.—The importance of the peasants in Indo-China will be understood when it is remembered that the economic system of the country is governed by the production of rice, which is still almost entirely in the hands of the indigenous inhabitants. In Tonking, rice growing covers practically the whole agricultural area of the delta in the rainy seasons and from 60 to 70 percent in dry seasons. In other States of the Union it is by far the most important indigenous crop. About four-fifths of the rice produced is used by the inhabitants and the remainder constitutes the main export product of the country. The preponderance of agriculture is shown by the fact that up to 1938 only about 220,000 wage earners were employed in commercial and industrial enterprises, whereas more than 18 million persons were engaged in agriculture.

Under the influence of French penetration and recent economic evolution, the existing agrarian system varies considerably from the north to the south of Indo-China, as regards both the distribution of land and the methods of cultivation. Owing to the Annamite system of dividing property among the children, the holdings in the deltas of Tonking and Annam have become very small. In Cochinchina, on the other hand, there is a preponderance of very large holdings, 45 percent of the rice fields being in estates of from 50 to several thousand hectares.²

Thus, agriculture in Indo-China has gradually evolved, by different methods in different districts, to a position with two very distinct elements: On the one hand, the large and medium-sized landowners—Annamites or French—who exercise their influence through the mandarins, the local councils and chambers of agriculture, etc., their associations, and the credit system; and, on the other hand, the working

² 1 hectare=2.471 acres.

masses—smallholders, tenant farmers, share farmers, and wage earners, all more or less subject to the other group.

In general, the masses of Indo-China live in the greatest poverty. The farmer lives on his land and that is all he can hope to do; at best he can merely satisfy his most immediate needs. He is faced with starvation if the harvest is poor or if any unexpected event, such as illness or accident, involves him in unforeseen expenditure. This is true in all sections of the country, but it is in the teeming deltas of the north that life is most difficult. Many families find it difficult to live through the period from one harvest to the next. The money lenders do a flourishing trade among these masses; high rates of interest are charged and the interest, which is paid in the form of a fraction of the harvest, reduces their assets still further. If the yield is insufficient, the land itself provides security for the claim.

Measures which were taken in later years to improve the lot of the Indo-Chinese peasants by the French authorities, but with incomplete success, were improvement of the conditions of land tenure, increasing the productivity of the soil by dredging and the construction of dikes and irrigation systems, and the organization of agricultural credit at moderate rates.

REGULATION OF SPECIAL GROUPS

Forced labor.—Forced labor is in general not admitted by the Indo-Chinese Government. However, forced labor on the behalf of certain chiefs of the Muong tribes in Laos has been allowed to continue, as the tribesmen derive certain advantages from the system and the Government felt that it was impossible for the authorities, by the mere issuance of an order, to abolish a custom which dated back to the very earliest days of the Muong tribes.

The physical conditions of Indo-China impose certain obligations on the inhabitants in connection with the protection of dikes. This type of work is not considered as forced labor by the Geneva Convention but as emergency work. The protection of the dike systems is of capital importance throughout the whole of Annam and Cambodia, and especially so in Tonking where the height of the Red River between banks during sudden floods is often above the level of the land.

The French Government issued a decree in August 1930, defining the general principles of compulsory labor for public purposes in colonies and protectorates which was applied in Indo-China in February 1932. This order provided that, with the exception of cases of force majeure and of labor for communal services, recourse might not be had to compulsory labor except for public purposes and by way of exception, and fixed the conditions under which the levying of workers might be authorized.

Porterage which was imposed, particularly in the mountainous areas where there was a lack of means of transportation, was regulated by an order issued by the Governor-General in February 1932. This order fixed the maximum loads which could be carried by coolies and provided that compulsory porterage must be forbidden whenever it was possible to use animal or mechanical transport.

An order issued in May 1933 fixed the local scope of the general prohibition of compulsory labor introduced by the 1932 order; compulsory labor for public purposes was prohibited in the whole of

Cochin-China and Cambodia and a considerable part of Annam and Tonking. In the other areas the maximum period of compulsory labor was fixed at 30 days for Tonking and 60 days for Annam and Laos.

Compulsory labor in the service of private persons is not permitted.

Contract labor.—Recruiting of agricultural labor under long-term contracts began in 1905 when large areas of fertile but uncultivated land were opened up in Cochin-China and Cambodia. Since these areas were too sparsely settled to provide the necessary labor the planters turned to the northern parts of Indo-China and more especially to the delta where there was an abundant labor supply. Recruiting on a large scale began in 1919 and by 1927 more than 20,000 workers were employed on the rubber plantations in the southern part of the country.

In order to carry out the proposed mobilization of native labor successfully, orders were drawn up by the General Labor Inspectorate (established in July 1927) concerning the conditions of remuneration of workers from Tonking and measures for protecting plantation coolies, including provision for deferred pay. The usual contract period under a written contract was 3 years within the country and 5 years in the South Pacific, with penal sanctions, but an order issued in 1935 provided that contracts might be for 1, 2, or 3 years.

About the middle of 1929, the world depression had caused a drop in the quotations for colonial products and especially for rubber. This decline became more marked in 1930 and 1931, and led the planters to suspend their development work and to cut down their overhead expenses by reducing the amount of labor to the minimum necessary for maintaining their plantations. Consequently, the recruiting of contract labor declined and had practically stopped between July 1931 and June 1932. The General Labor Inspectorate then took steps to lower labor costs, more especially by revising the conditions of engagement of workers. The minimum wage under new contracts was reduced from 0.40 piaster¹ a day to 0.30 piaster for men and from 0.30 piaster to 0.23 piaster for women, with a supplementary rice allowance for children. As a result of the wage reductions there was a revival of recruiting between 1932 and 1935 when it again declined.

The hours of work carried out on a daily basis are 10 a day, including the time going to and from work. Necessary overtime work is paid for at 1½ times the normal rate. A 2-hour rest period must be given during the hottest part of the day and shelters must be provided if the workplace is far from the camp. One day of rest must be given each week; certain religious holidays are also given, but no food or wages are paid for these days. Wages must be paid at least once a month and within 10 days of the period for which they are due.

In 1927 a system of deferred pay was instituted by which 5 percent of the pay was deducted and an equal amount paid by the employer into a general fund centralized under the Postmaster-General of Indo-China. The aim of the Governor-General in instituting this system was to protect the workers against improvident habits and their tendency to squander their earnings on games of chance and to borrow money at exorbitant rates of interest, with the result that in too many cases they returned home destitute at the expiration of their contract. As a rule the deferred pay is refunded to the workers when

¹ Piaster equal to 10 French francs; exchange rate of franc in U. S. currency in 1932=3.72 cents.

they are repatriated, but half the amount may be paid out during their service either to enable them to meet the expenses connected with various rites and customs on the death of a parent, wife, or child, or for their legal marriage.

Noncontract labor.—Until 1933, noncontract labor in Indo-China was the object of very few regulations. The administrative authorities had made an attempt to define the legal status of noncontract labor by issuing workbooks to certain classes of workers and establishing machinery for the regulation of individual and collective labor disputes occurring between workers and employers. They had also promulgated a number of laws organizing protective measures for the workers' health and welfare and in January 1933 steps were taken to regulate conditions of work.

The conditions of short-term agreements between European employers and Asiatic workers and servants were fixed by an order issued in 1899, which was originally applicable only in Tonking but was later extended to Cochinchina and the protectorates. The order limited the period for which workers could hire out their services to 1 year, apart from reengagement, and provided that all indigenous persons working for European or assimilated persons should have workbooks. These provisions were not strictly observed, however, and measures were taken in Tonking to apply the regulations more strictly, first to skilled workers and, by an order of January 1930, to all indigenous or assimilated Asiatic employers and workers with the exception of domestic servants and indoor staff, who in an indigenous society are considered more as members of the family than as ordinary employees. An order of February 1936 extended these regulations to the whole of the Union, with the exception of servants and seasonal agricultural workers.

A system of control has grown up with the development of industry, resulting from the ignorance of European employers of the native language, by which native intermediaries called "cais" are employed as agents of the employer in various capacities. In some cases the cai is appointed by the manager of an enterprise to carry out certain duties agreed upon in advance, but on his own account and his own responsibility. He may be responsible for the engagement of the workers, the organization of the work, the payment of wages, etc. In this case the cai is really an employer and is known as a cai-subcontractor.

In some cases the cai is hired to recruit workers in the villages and his job ends when he has conducted the workers to the establishment. In other cases the cai continues to supervise the workers recruited by himself or others, in which case he is really a foreman and responsible to the employer for the discipline of the workers under his orders. In still other instances, the cai may simply be responsible for providing and cooking food for the workers.

Many corrupt practices grew out of this system, varying according to the nature and the duties of the intermediary. Some of the subcontractors deducted such a high percentage from the payment for each job that the workers received only a small part of their earnings. Among other dishonest practices of the recruiting cais were failure to give the workers full details as to wages and living conditions prevailing at the place of employment, or to give sufficient attention to the working capacity of the workers they engaged, as well as making a profit on the various operations they carried on, such as catering,

transport, etc. An order aimed at securing more responsible agents, issued in July 1930, provided that each recruiting agent must be provided with an identity paper, a personal tax card for the current year, and special authority from his employer endorsed by the Resident.

Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions

GENERAL LEVEL OF PRE-WAR WAGES

In general, wages in Indo-China consist of cash wages and payment in kind, rice, or rice and living quarters frequently being supplied to industrial and commercial employees as well as agricultural workers. In some cases the entire payment is in kind. There is quite a wide difference in wages paid in the northern and southern parts of the country, the higher wages paid in the Saigon-Cholon district being due to the scarcity of labor as compared with the overpopulated Tonking delta. Workers in agricultural and industrial enterprises are paid by the day, while servants and salaried employees are paid on a monthly basis. The wage income of the workers is actually much lower than the wage rates would indicate, for the Indo-Chinese workers earn money only a part of the year. Moreover, the wages (in addition to being reduced by the long periods of unemployment) are still further cut by payments to the cai to keep in his good graces and by undue deductions by the employer.

In 1937, the average daily wage of skilled workers in the north was 0.63 piaster, of male laborers 0.29 piaster, and of female laborers 0.19 piaster; in the south the average was 1.17 piasters, 0.61 piaster, and 0.42 piaster, respectively. The exchange value of the piaster, prior to the devaluation of the French and United States currencies, which was equivalent to 10 French francs was about 39 cents in United States currency. Daily wages of male workers in the north may therefore be said to range from about 11 to 24 cents and in the south from 25 to 46 cents. The average for female workers was from about 7 to 16 cents.

The accompanying table shows the average wages of skilled workers and laborers in northern and southern Indo-China, 1931-37.

Average Daily Wages in North and South Indo-China, 1931, 1934, 1936, and 1937

Class of workers and year	Hanoi	Haiphong	Other centers in Tonking	Annam	Saigon-Cholon (South-ern Indo-China)	Total, North-ern Indo-China	Total, South-ern Indo-China
	<i>Piaster</i>	<i>Piaster</i>	<i>Piaster</i>	<i>Piaster</i>	<i>Piasters</i>	<i>Piaster</i>	<i>Piaster</i>
Skilled workers:							
1931.....	0.63	0.79	0.62	0.81	1.50	¹ 0.74	¹ 1.50
1934.....	.61	.58	.53	.69	1.22	¹ .62	¹ 1.19
1936.....	.54	.56	.45	.59	1.13	¹ .56	¹ 1.10
1937.....	.59	.55	.53	.62	1.20	¹ .63	¹ 1.17
Laborers, male:							
1931.....	.36	.37	.31	.37	.74	1.38	1.74
1934.....	.29	.30	.26	.25	.56	1.29	1.65
1936.....	.26	.26	.27	.24	.54	1.26	1.53
1937.....	.28	.30	.29	.25	.62	1.29	1.61
Laborers, female:							
1931.....	.22	.31	.18	.25	.45	.22	.46
1934.....	.20	.21	.15	.19	.43	.19	.40
1936.....	.18	.17	.15	.15	.38	.18	.38
1937.....	.20	.21	.18	.19	.42	.19	.41

¹ Including railroad and street-railway workers.

HOURS OF WORK

The 10-hour day and 60-hour week prevailed in Indo-China up to the enactment of a French law, in October 1936, which provided for a progressive reduction in hours in Indo-China to 8 per day as of January 1, 1938, in industrial and commercial establishments.

After the outbreak of war in Europe, hours of work were lengthened in France by a decree of September 1939, and an October decree provided that no increased wage was to be paid for overtime. These decrees were applied in Indo-China by local orders which provided that hours in industrial and commercial establishments could be extended up to 60 per week and 10 per day, with the normal hours of women 9 per day and 54 per week.

TREND OF COST OF LIVING AND WAGES

Comparison of the changes in wage rates with changes in the cost of living shows that the rise in wages between 1925 and 1930 was accompanied by a nearly equal rise in living costs. Wage indexes, according to figures published in the Bulletin Économique de l'Indo-Chine, based on 1925 as 100, rose to 125 in Saigon in 1930 and to 120 in Hanoi, and the cost-of-living index in the two areas rose to 121.

Cost of living and wages began to decline in the third quarter of 1930, the cost-of-living index having fallen to 70 in Hanoi and 77 in Saigon by the third quarter of 1935. Comparable figures are not available for wages, but between 1931 and 1933 the cost of living fell by about 20 percent while the wage reductions were reported to have fluctuated between 7 and 17 percent. It appears, therefore, from these figures that in the first part of the 1930's there was some increase in real wages. However, in the first part of the depression a fairly large number of workers was dismissed and the young and inexperienced were the first to go. The dismissal of the lower-paid categories of workers had the result of maintaining the average level of wages.

WAGE AND HOUR REGULATION

There was no wage legislation in Indo-China, except for contract workers, prior to December 1936 when a French decree provided that compulsory minimum wages should be fixed in all industrial and commercial occupations. The minimum wages were to be established without distinction of occupation or employment for each class of persons (men, women, or children) in each district, taking into account the necessities of life, provided that this did not prejudice the general employment regulations drawn up after agreement between the employers and the labor inspectorate representing the workers. The law provided that committees should be created by the principal administrative officers of the State, including representatives of commercial, industrial, and mining enterprises selected from a list adopted by the meetings of chambers of commerce, native members of the elected assemblies, and the labor inspector of the State. The recommendations of the committees were to be ratified by orders issued by the principal administrative officers of the States.

Labor Administration

Under the administrative organization of Indo-China the French Minister of Colonies had general supervision of matters relating to labor and issued various decrees which were applied by orders issued by the Governor-General of the Colony. The Secretary-General of the General Government of Indo-China, the Governor of Cochinchina, and the Residents-General of Tonking, Annam, Cambodia, and Laos, the head of the Judicial Department, the Inspector of Public Health and Medical Services, and the Inspector-General of Labor were responsible for the administration of measures for the protection of contract workers. Labor controllers were appointed by the heads of the different States from among local public officials or civil or military agents. These controllers had general supervision of the conditions of employment of contract workers and were invested with simple police powers to judge infractions of agreements by the workers.

General supervision of labor was placed under a General Inspector of Labor by an order of the Governor-General in 1927 which created a general labor inspection service. In 1932 the General Labor Inspectorate became the First Bureau of the Department of Economic and Administrative Affairs, although the reorganization was not completed until June 1935. The Inspectorate, therefore, ceased to be an independent organization.

LABOR CODE FOR INDO-CHINA

Throughout 1937, under instructions from the Popular Front Government in France, the administrations of the different countries in the Indo-Chinese Union were active in giving the colony legislation drawn up along the lines of the social laws in France. Immediately upon assuming office the French Administration announced its intention to give Europeans and persons with the status of Europeans in the colonies the advantages granted to workers of the same class in France, as well as to bring about reforms for the native workers designed to improve the working conditions among them.

The steps taken to give the residents of French Indo-China a labor code were: The promulgation in August 1936 of the January 1933 decree, regulating the free employment of natives and the employment of women and children; the decree of October 1936, reducing hours of work and prohibiting night work for women and children and providing for vacations with pay; the decree of December 1936, establishing a true labor code for natives; and one of February 1937, giving the Europeans a labor code in harmony with labor legislation in France.

Labor Organizations

For various reasons there had been no opportunity for a trade-union movement to develop in Indo-China. First, the wage-earning class is of very recent formation and includes only a very small part of the population; and second, such permanent organizations as trade-unions are not recognized by law. The French Trade-Union Act of 1884 and the Trade Associations Act of 1901 had never been extended to the colony. Moreover, the right to strike was closely limited by the

system of penal sanctions. In Indo-China the question of trade-union organization was complicated by the existence, side by side with the permanent workers, of a floating body of labor which accepts employment in various undertakings only during the agricultural slack season. To incorporate this body of casual workers in the trade-union movement would be extremely difficult. Moreover, trade-unions must be kept alive by contributions from their members and it is doubtful whether the very low wages paid to the workers would enable the unions to accumulate sufficient reserves to defend the interests of their members.

Industrial Relations

Strikes.—The right to strike was closely limited by the system of penal sanctions introduced by the labor regulations. The order of November 1918, introducing regulations for agricultural workers in Cochin-China, provided that any indigenous or Asiatic worker who, after signing a contract of employment with an agricultural undertaking, quit without justification and for reasons not specified in the regulations, either individually or as a result of a plan arranged with other persons, was liable to the penalties laid down in the French Penal Code. This section of the code was cancelled in France in 1884 but was still in force in Indo-China.

The French decree of April 1932 on conciliation and arbitration provided penalties of fines or imprisonment, or both, in addition to penalties which might be imposed under the Penal Code, for any person taking part or inciting others to take part in an unlawful collective cessation of work which in private public-utility services would cause prolonged inconvenience to the public and consequently would compel the Government to adopt or refrain from adopting a given line of conduct.

However, in spite of these restrictions on strike activity a movement of solidarity among the workers was expressed by collective stoppages of work which in some cases assumed fairly large proportions.

Conciliation and arbitration.—A French decree of April 1930 established conciliation boards in French Indo-China for the settlement of individual disputes between employers and employees arising out of the contract of employment in commerce, industry, or agriculture. The decree provided that such cases might not be referred to any court until the defendant had been summoned before a conciliation board.

Each board was divided into two sections to deal with disputes involving European employers and workers and those between native employers and workers. A mixed board handled disputes involving Europeans and natives. There was no appeal from the findings of the board.

Social Insurance

The only system of social insurance in Indo-China was workmen's compensation for accidents, introduced in 1934 for Europeans and in 1936 for natives.

A decree of September 9, 1934, applying to Europeans (French and others on the same footing) provided for compensation in case of accident to workers employed in industrial and commercial establishments, agriculture, and forestry, whether public or private. The law

provided for daily compensation and the cost of medical attendance, medicines, and funeral expenses, as well as pensions in case of permanent incapacity, and survivors' pensions. Benefits were payable if the injured persons were incapacitated for work for more than 4 days. The law was made effective January 1, 1937.

Workmen's compensation was extended to natives, and to persons placed on the same footing, by a French decree of December 30, 1936. The decree provided that the methods of application should be established by an order of the Governor-General, after consultation with the chambers of commerce and the duly constituted industrial organizations, within 3 months of its promulgation.

The law covered wage-earning and salaried employees in any branch of industry or commerce or in any agricultural enterprise, and provided for compensation, payable by the employer, for any accident whether the injured person was in any way in fault or not, unless the accident was caused willfully by the injured person.

Labor and Industry Under Japanese Control

There is little specific information as to what has happened to the masses of the workers in Indo-China since the Japanese secured control over the resources of that country. It is probable that there has been little change in the laws and regulations affecting the workers, since the Vichy Government in France retained nominal control, although the puppet government under Vice-Admiral Jean Decoux has collaborated with Japan in the measures taken to obtain the materials and labor Japan needed.

Since 1941, the Annamites, who form about 80 percent of the population and whom the Japanese have always regarded as inferiors, have been reduced almost to the position of slaves who must work for the establishment of Japanese control over the whole of Asia. Compulsory labor for Annamites between the ages of 16 and 40 years was put in effect at the beginning of 1943, according to a radio report which stated that all workers within these age limits must undertake any work considered necessary by the Government in agriculture, industry, offices, and the army.

It was also decreed that persons inciting others to boycotts or strikes are liable to 5 years' imprisonment and a fine of 1,000 piasters. The imposition of such a severe penalty would seem to indicate considerable unrest among the workers. A pro-Allied underground movement is reported to have been started in December 1942.

With the collapse of France in June 1940, Indo-China lost her only protected market as well as the only source of capital for her infant industries. By July 1940, Japan had replaced France as the principal buyer of the country's coal, iron, salt, rubber, phosphates, and rice. Indo-China, cut off from Europe by the cessation of French shipping services, was forced to turn to Japan for her supplies of manufactured goods, raw silk, and chemicals.

In May 1941, Indo-China was virtually incorporated into the yen bloc by the signing of the Japan-Indo-China Economic Agreement which provided, among other things, for the development of the country's agricultural, mining, and hydraulic enterprises by Japanese capital, and granted free entrance into Indo-China for 40 Japanese commodities and minimum duties on 400 others. A prior agreement

signed in January gave Japan the right to purchase Indo-China's exportable rice supply on highly favorable terms.

In July 1941, the Vichy Government yielded to Japanese pressure and signed an agreement for the "joint defense of Indo-China" which opened the way for Japanese military occupation of the southern part of the country. The following month, the Japanese press reported that Indo-China's economy was to be subjected to a "drastic reorganization." The French administrative officials have been engaged for some months, and perhaps since the Japanese invasion of Indo-China, in a campaign to preserve the pre-war status of Vichy France as protector of the Federation. Inspection trips by Decoux and his subordinates offer almost unlimited opportunities to further the campaign by reminding the different races of the debt they owe France for existing public works, education, and health facilities.

In an apparent effort to secure further the cooperation of the Annamites, restrictions on the holding of important administrative posts by natives have been lifted and an Annamite has been appointed Director of the Labor Department and another Chief Director of Economic Affairs. The appointments were reported to have been made in November 1943 under the terms of a decree issued by the Government General which authorized appointment of any French or Annamite citizen as chief or director of any government department, provided the individual was sufficiently qualified. Other Government measures designed to improve conditions of the native groups and thus foster a spirit of cooperation include increased educational opportunities, improved housing conditions in the larger cities, and increased and improved medical and health facilities.

Labor Conditions in Poland¹

Summary

POLAND was constituted as an independent republic in 1918, after more than a century of partitioned existence under German, Austrian, and Russian rule. The census of 1931 showed a population of 32 million persons, of whom about 15 million or 47 percent were gainfully employed. At that time nearly 61 percent of the population was dependent on agriculture; mining and industry accounted for an additional 19 percent.

Poland had a surplus of agricultural labor and about 60 percent of its farms were submarginal in size. The Polish Government up to the time of the Nazi invasion had made substantial efforts to improve the impoverished condition of Polish agriculture by a program of division of large estates among the peasants and by a planned industrialization of the country. The Government owned or controlled numerous vital industries, employing a total of about a million workers, and had established several new industries. Polish industry as a whole, however, has been predominantly on a small scale, with handicrafts playing an important part.

Weekly earnings of all workers in large and medium-size manufacturing industries for the years 1932-36 averaged 27.7 zlotys (about \$5.26). Inadequate diets and overcrowded housing conditions were general among urban workers.

Labor legislation before the war was quite comprehensive. The 8-hour day, the 48-hour week, overtime pay, vacations with pay, and restrictions on the employment of women and children were all provided for by law. Labor's right to organize into trade-unions was guaranteed by the Polish Constitution. In 1938 there were 298 independent trade-unions with 7,383 local affiliates and 941,000 registered members. Collective agreements were registered with the Government and had to conform to certain regulations. About half of the agreements concluded in 1936 had been preceded by strikes. Optional mediation and arbitration procedures were provided by law. Disputes between workers or between an individual worker and his employer were under the compulsory jurisdiction of State-supported labor courts.

Social insurance covering sickness, accidents, invalidity, old-age, and death of workers, was provided for by four of the five funds under the Central Social Insurance Institute. The fifth provided for unemployed white-collar workers. Unemployed manual workers, however, were under the Labor Fund, created in 1935; this fund also financed public works, trained and placed workers, and provided educational and cultural opportunities to the unemployed.

The cooperative movement was well developed in Poland. In 1936 there were 13,340 active cooperative societies with a membership of about 3 million persons.

After the invasion, the Nazis assumed complete control over the Polish economy, suppressed all labor organizations, and suspended or

¹ Prepared by Edmund Nash, of the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division.

modified all labor and social legislation, in line with their policy of exploitation and their concept of racial superiority.

Geographic and Historical Background

The Polish Republic dates officially from Armistice Day, November 11, 1918, when it was reconstituted as an independent nation after about a century and a quarter of foreign rule; the country had been partly divided among Russia, Prussia, and Austria in 1772 and 1793, and was completely partitioned in 1795. During the first 3 years of the new Poland, its boundaries were in process of determination by plebiscites, in regions formerly under German control, or by force of arms, as on the Russian frontier. In 1920 the Poles, under the leadership of Marshal Pilsudski, waged a successful war against the Russians and by the terms of the Treaty of Riga (Mar. 18, 1921) extended their eastern boundaries beyond the "Curzon Line" tentatively proposed by the Allies at Versailles. From 1922 until the German invasion of 1939, Poland occupied an area of nearly 150,000 square miles, or equivalent to the combined area of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Virginia, and West Virginia.

The second decennial census of Poland, as of December 9, 1931, showed a population of 32,132,000. The population on January 1, 1938, was estimated at 34,534,000. At the time of the German invasion, Poland had about 35 million people.

As the segments from which Poland was created had been under the rule of three different countries for over a century, Poland had in its population large religious and linguistic minorities. According to the 1931 census only about 22 million (69 percent) of the population reported Polish as their maternal language. Persons of Ukrainian and Ruthenian speech constituted 5½ millions (17 percent); persons of the Jewish faith, most of whom were in the cities, about 3 millions (9 percent); and German-speaking persons, 741,000 (about 2 percent).

The republican form of government in Poland, established by the constitution of March 1921, came to an end in May 1926, when Marshal Pilsudski, who had retired to private life in 1923, staged a coup d'état to remedy what he termed the "corruption" of the existing government. During the 7½ years of Polish independence, some 80 political parties and 14 cabinets had been in existence. Pilsudski forced the resignation of the President and Prime Minister but continued the existence of the Parliament which forthwith elected him President of Poland. He declined the office, and upon his suggestion Ignacy Moscicki, professor of electro-chemistry at the University of Lwow, was elected President for a 7-year term; in 1933 he was reelected for a second term, ending in 1940. After the coup d'état the President's power was greatly increased at the expense of that of Parliament; Pilsudski became Prime Minister and Minister of War ("Inspector-General of the Army"). It was not until 1935, however, that Pilsudski succeeded in obtaining Parliament's approval of a new constitution designed to support his rule by strengthening the executive powers of the Government. The new constitution went into effect on April 23, 1935.

Upon Pilsudski's death on May 12, 1935, General Smigly-Rydz succeeded him as Inspector-General of the Army. A group of colonels who had been closely associated with Pilsudski continued his regime,

along with the party created by him—called the Camp of National Unity (Ozon)—but in a more centralized form. In July 1935 they induced the Parliament to enact laws which reduced, by half, the size of the Sejm (the lower house of the Parliament) and, by creating special colleges for the nomination of candidates, deprived the political parties of this prerogative. Although the Peasant Party, the National Democrats, and the other opposition parties were impotent in Parliament, they (with the exception of the illegal Communist Party) continued in open existence with their newspapers, propaganda activities, meetings, and election campaigns. In the municipal elections of 1938 they achieved striking majorities over the Government party. Although the Minister of the Interior appointed the governors of the 17 States (voivodships) and the prefects of the 80 counties into which the country was divided, each of the 3,000 communes had a legislative council elected by direct and universal suffrage. The council's selection of mayor and vice-mayor, however, was subject to the prefect's approval.

On September 1, 1939, Germany invaded Poland, and on September 28 Germany and the Soviet Union fixed new frontiers, proclaiming the end of the Polish State. Each took about half of the Polish territory, but the part taken by Germany contained about 22 million people as compared with 13 million in that taken by the Soviet Union. The industrial sections of western and northwestern Poland, with over 10 million people, were incorporated into the Reich as two new German Provinces. The rest of the German-controlled Polish territory, containing a population of some 12 million and the cities of Warsaw and Cracow (the new capital), became the Government General administered by German authorities. Later Germany went to war against the U. S. S. R., and by the midsummer of 1941, the Soviet-controlled Provinces of Poland were also under German control.

Agricultural and Industrial Conditions

Poland is primarily an agricultural country, over 67 percent of its land being used for the production of food and livestock, and an additional 22 percent being covered with forests. The principal crops are potatoes and rye, though sugar beets, oats, and wheat are produced in considerable quantity. The raising of livestock, especially cattle, pigs, sheep, and horses, is also important.

The leading industries include lumbering, metallurgy, and the manufacture of textiles, foodstuffs, and chemicals (especially fertilizers). Other outstanding industries are the manufacture of paper and leather; coal, iron, and zinc mining; and stone, glass, and ceramics. Among the new industries are the production of automobiles, airplanes, and engines, and the electro-technical industry. Most of the industries are in the western, west central, and southwestern Provinces of Poland.

AGRICULTURAL SITUATION

Even before the war, Polish agriculture as a whole was impoverished. The worst conditions prevailed in the east and south, especially in the marshy districts of the east, which constitute one of the "poverty corners" of Europe. In 1938 over 60 percent of a total of some 4,200,000 farms were smaller than the minimum of 5 hectares

(about 12½ acres) generally considered necessary for the adequate support of a family. This situation had resulted from the Polish farmers' custom of dividing their land in bequeathing it to their heirs.

The Government had embarked upon a program designed to remedy the agrarian situation. By the end of 1937, over 2½ million hectares (over 6 million acres) had been distributed to (1) farm workers who had lost their jobs through the division of the large estates, (2) owners of submarginal farms, (3) discharged soldiers, and (4) landless farmers. This land came from tracts owned by the State or the Catholic Church and from large estates² which the Government had taken from the owners, paying them compensation therefor. In each of the years, 1936 and 1937, a quarter of a million acres of land was distributed. It was expected that the program would be completed in about 6 or 7 years more. However, it is doubtful whether the status of Polish agriculture as a whole was improved, in view of the large birth rate, the shrinkage of emigration (in the years 1931-35 more Poles returned to the country than left, whereas before the first World War, almost 250,000 Poles left annually for North and South America, and about 600,000 moved seasonally to the adjacent European countries), the continued practice of subdividing farm land upon the death of the owner, and the low crop yield resulting from the inadequacy of equipment. The ravages of the current war, moreover, have made the situation worse.

CONDITIONS IN INDUSTRY

Polish industry, on the other hand, did not grow rapidly enough to give promise of absorbing the surplus labor from the overpopulated countryside. The Polish Director-General of the Employment Fund estimated in 1938 that the number of agricultural workers in excess of requirements was about 8.8 million.³ Aside from the initial hardships entailed by the devastation in World War I and the industrial backwardness of the country dating from the early period of partition, the slow growth of Polish industry has been due mainly to the limited domestic demand for industrial products, to world trade barriers which restricted industrial exports, and to the lack of essential raw materials and foreign investments. The absence of a strong middle class has also helped to retard economic and industrial growth. Because of these various factors Polish industry has been predominantly on a small scale, with handicrafts playing a large part. Of the 222,000 licensed industrial establishments in 1935, over 195,000 employed four or fewer workers; in 1936 some 354,000 handicraft workers were licensed. However, there had been a continuous increase in workers employed in the large and medium-sized enterprises (employing more than 20 workers) and by July 1938 they numbered 837,000. With several exceptions, notably the textile and the machine-tool industries, in most cases neither the small nor the larger industries were equipped qualitatively along modern lines.

In order to promote industrialization on a large scale, Poland had resorted to an economic system of State capitalism. The Government owned about a hundred industrial businesses, with over a thou-

² Over 450 acres (over 150 acres in industrial and suburban areas).

³ Industrial and Labor Information (International Labor Office, Geneva), November 1938 (pp. 290-292): "Employment and Unemployment, the Situation in Poland."

sand units, and controlled many others. Among these were all or a large part of the armament industry; the merchant marine, railroads and commercial aviation; the postal, radio, telegraph, and telephone industries; the coal, iron and salt mines; oil refineries; forests; banks; and various factories (automobile, metals, etc.). In addition the State had five monopolies—for alcohol, matches, tobacco, salt, and lotteries. Before the German invasion, about a million persons (not counting the army) were employed by the Government. Over a quarter of the national budget went into the public investment, and about a third of the Government's revenues came from its enterprises and monopolies.

It is also important to note that nearly every important industry in Poland, except textiles, was a member of some trust or cartel (the sugar and coal industries are the best examples) which fixed quotas of production and even prices. In 1930, about 37 percent of the total industrial production was controlled by 56 cartels. Because of Poland's policy of high protective tariffs, it had been possible under the cartel system to maintain on the home market prices high enough to recoup losses caused by dumping abroad. In November 1935, however, the Government issued a decree providing for the substantial reduction of cartel prices and the elimination of cartels restricting output unduly. By the end of 1935, out of a total of 273 cartels 107 had been dissolved voluntarily or under compulsion and considerable reductions in cartel prices were brought about. However, new cartels were created continually and at the end of 1936 there were still 266 in existence.

SEIZURES BY GERMANS, AFTER INVASION

All State properties and monopolies, as well as all other important industrial establishments not controlled by the State, were confiscated by the Germans after the invasion. Polish farms of over 250 acres were placed in the hands of German trustees, and fixed agricultural quotas were imposed on the farmers. Private property was also confiscated if the owners had fled, were Jews, had acquired the property since September 1, 1939, or had settled after October 1, 1918, on what had been German territory in 1914. This was in line with the German policy of expelling, from the incorporated Provinces to the Government General, all "dispensable" Poles, and of replacing them by Germans. The expulsions, which began in Gdynia in October 1939 and in Poznan in November 1939 and were later extended to other towns and the countryside, were carried out with merciless Nazi thoroughness. About 1,600,000 persons were thus expelled.

Industrial Distribution of the Population

According to the census of 1931, nearly 61 percent of the Polish population of some 32 million was dependent upon agriculture and forestry; over 19 percent, on mining and industry; about 6 percent, on trade and insurance; about 3½ percent, on communications and transport industries; and about 10½ percent, on other pursuits (see table, p. 67). Of the total population, about 15 million or 47 percent were gainfully employed.

Industrial Distribution of Gainfully Occupied Persons in Poland, 1931¹

Industry or occupation	Total gainfully employed	Employers and independent workers	Salaried employees	Unpaid family workers	Wage earners		
					Total	Males	Females
All industries.....	15, 006, 002	4, 532, 411	664, 542	5, 179, 307	4, 209, 793	2, 839, 046	1, 370, 747
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing.....	9, 752, 128	3, 321, 776	26, 405	4, 936, 006	1, 467, 941	9, 853, 333	514, 608
Mining.....	175, 111	260	8, 610	35	160, 200	160, 770	5, 436
Industry.....	2, 362, 558	650, 975	97, 593	112, 077	1, 501, 913	1, 170, 631	331, 282
Commerce and insurance.....	813, 243	425, 300	85, 641	122, 715	179, 584	113, 922	65, 662
Transport and communication.....	340, 537	47, 171	67, 117	3, 802	222, 447	218, 703	3, 744
Public administration.....	294, 862	7, 705	169, 144	327	117, 686	109, 597	8, 089
Professional service.....	332, 913	78, 600	162, 070	4, 403	87, 780	48, 241	39, 539
Domestic service.....	415, 384				415, 384	16, 317	399, 067
Occupation not specified.....	99, 407	564	47, 962	29	50, 832	47, 532	3, 300

¹ Data are from I. L. O. Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1942 (Montreal, 1943), pp. 14-15.

Employment Conditions

PRE-WAR EMPLOYMENT SITUATION

The supply of labor in Poland has always been greatly in excess of demand, especially in the winter months when much surplus agricultural labor was available (it is estimated that in 1933, at least a million peasants and their families were seeking supplementary employment). The index of employment declined sharply from 1929 to 1932 and did not reach its 1929 level until 1938. In the first 6 months of 1939 it was only 2 percent above the 1929 level.

	Employment index (1929=100)		Employment index (1929=100)
1929.....	100. 0	1935.....	77. 1
1930.....	84. 5	1936.....	83. 4
1931.....	71. 3	1937.....	94. 1
1932.....	62. 3	1938.....	101. 6
1933.....	65. 0	1939 (first 6 months).....	102. 0
1934.....	72. 0		

In 1938, a typical year in the period 1935-38, the average number of persons (mostly unskilled) registered as unemployed was about 350,000; nearly 500,000 were registered in March and over 210,000 in September. In March 1939 the number was 450,000. The registered unemployed included only those previously employed in specified nonagricultural enterprises. The Polish Minister of Social Welfare estimated that in 1938 the number of young unemployed persons (males, 17 to 22 years of age; females, 15 to 22) in the towns alone was about 600,000. Because of the Government's policy of giving preference in placement to unemployed workers with families, the ratio of young persons to adults in employment had declined considerably after 1929. Beginning in 1932 the Government created numerous labor camps for the purpose of providing work for unemployed young persons; some 19,000 young persons (about 1,000 of them girls) were thus provided for in 1935; and in 1936, about 9,000.

The Institute for the Vocational Retraining of Professional Workers, founded by the National Confederation of White-collar Workers, estimated in 1935 that there were 170,000 unemployed white-collar workers out of a total of 570,000. The Institute carried on a continuous campaign to create new openings for white-collar workers,

especially in rural areas, and to direct white-collar workers to less-crowded professions.

The exodus of farm workers to towns had aggravated the unemployment situation, and the Government continued its attempts to reduce the migration of such labor to towns by (1) granting subsidies to farmers' cooperative societies and to institutions advancing interest-free loans to the rural population, (2) promoting the building of vocational and elementary schools, (3) granting loans to unemployed persons with vocational training to enable them to open small craftsmen's shops, and (4) providing libraries and other cultural amenities to keep agricultural workers from moving to other localities.

ADMINISTRATION OF GOVERNMENT ACTIVITIES FOR THE UNEMPLOYED: THE LABOR FUND

In 1935 all Government activities concerning the unemployed were centralized in the Labor Fund, a new establishment under the Minister of Social Welfare. The Fund was administered by a director acting in accordance with the policies established by an advisory committee representing the Government, management, labor, and the public. It had 17 subsidiary bureaus throughout the country, i. e., one in each voivodship. Each of these bureaus had an advisory committee, presided over by the governor of the voivodship, and usually had subsidiary offices as well. The fund was supported by several special taxes—on earnings, amusements, sugar and beer, electric-light bulbs, gas for household purposes, rents, etc.

The functions of the Labor Fund were as follows: Financing of public works to decrease unemployment; registration and placement of workers; administration of unemployment insurance; relief to uninsured unemployed or those who had exhausted their unemployment-insurance benefits; organization of employment projects, including the labor camps, for young people, in conformity with established social and educational principles; promotion of rural employment; vocational training and the establishment of independent small workshops for unemployed workers with trades; and provision of cultural and educational opportunities for the unemployed. White-collar workers, however, were not under the Fund but under the Insurance Establishment created by the Social Insurance Act of March 1933.

PLACEMENT OFFICES

In 1937 the Labor Fund had 196 employment offices. In addition, the territory of Upper Silesia had separate public placement bureaus, dating from 1918, not responsible to the Labor Fund but administered by commissions, representing equally the employers and the workers, which were responsible to the governor of the voivodship.

Private employment agencies operated by industrial or social organizations were allowed to function throughout Poland, but had to conform to certain minimum requirements as to competence. There were 293 such agencies in 1932: 90 run by labor unions; 73, by unions of white-collar workers; 16, by welfare associations; 10, by employers' organizations; and 104 by other organizations. By 1936 only 147 of these agencies had survived the depression. The few agencies requiring payment for their services were a vanishing group, since they

could be operated only by persons licensed as far back as 1921; permits had to be renewed annually, at which time conformity to legal requirements had to be demonstrated. In 1935 there were only 11 such agencies in operation.

PLACEMENT AND LABOR RECRUITMENT UNDER GERMAN RULE

Immediately after the German conquest, the Nazi authorities, taking control of all hiring and dismissals, began the recruitment of workers throughout the occupied territory for reconstruction and agriculture in Poland and for agricultural labor in Germany. By the middle of October 1939 some 115 employment offices had been opened. A system of labor cards was introduced for all industrial workers; possession of a labor card was necessary in order to get ration or work cards. By the end of 1941 there were in the Government General—as distinct from the Provinces incorporated into the Reich, and not including the Polish territory previously occupied by the Russians—20 main employment offices with 63 branches.

In October 1939 the Germans introduced, in the Government General, labor service for unemployed Polish men 18 to 60 years of age and a 2-year period of compulsory labor for Jewish men 14 to 60 years of age. Such labor was used on Polish public works, and some lasting achievements were made in flood control. By a decree of April 24, 1940, all unemployed persons, male and female, born between the years of 1915 and 1924 were compelled under penalty to register for work in Germany. At the beginning of 1941 all Jewish women 17 to 35 years of age were conscripted for forced work. In the summer of 1940 the Germans staged round-ups of able-bodied or political-suspect men in various cities; on August 12, 1940, a single round-up in Warsaw netted 20,000 workers who were shipped to Germany; the rounded-up political suspects were sent to concentration camps. Of the 694,000 war prisoners who had been members of the Polish armed forces, about 540,000 were transferred to Germany for agricultural work, road building, and other public works. By 1943 only about 10 percent of the prisoners of war had not been replaced by civilian labor. By the end of September 1941, over a million Polish workers (about 25 percent of them women) had been recruited for agricultural as well as industrial work in Germany. At the beginning of 1943 the number was estimated as 1,300,000. (In 1938 only 60,000 Polish seasonal migrant agricultural workers had entered Germany.) The recruited workers had their clothing marked with the letter "P" and were segregated from the German population. There was no limit to the hours they might be asked to work, and little attention was paid to their welfare and protection. Aside from German recruitment it was estimated that about 1,500,000 persons, of whom about 500,000 were Jews, had left Poland for eastern Russia before German control was extended over all of the territory that had formed the Polish State.

Hours and Working Conditions

One of the first measures of the Polish Republic was an Executive decree in November 1918 establishing the 8-hour day and a 46-hour week for all workers in industrial and commercial establishments, mines, transportation, and communications. The provisions of this

decree were developed in the law of December 18, 1919, and were in force, with some modifications, at the time of the German invasion. Night work and work on Sundays and the 14 Polish holidays were forbidden; the only exceptions were for workers in continuous operations such as hospitals, transportation, and bakeries, but these workers had a compensatory rest day during the week. In 1933 the prevailing liberal payment for overtime was reduced to time and a quarter pay for the first 2 hours' overtime, and to time and a half after 10 hours' work and for night, Sunday, and holiday work. Obligatory also was a break of at least 1 hour in every 6 hours of work; this requirement, however, was subject to limitation or cancellation by the Minister of Social Welfare. In 1934 the 48-hour week supplanted the 46-hour week, except that underground miners working at a temperature of over 82° F. had a 6-hour day and a 36-hour week; for miners working at lower temperatures, a 7½-hour day and 45-hour week was provided. Workers doing strenuous or unhealthful work had a maximum 7-hour day and 42-hour week. After the German occupation these regulations were not enforced.

Under Polish laws manual workers were entitled to 8 days of paid vacation after 1 year of work and 15 days after 3 years; white-collar workers were entitled to 2 weeks after 6 months of service and to 1 month after 1 year. Young workers, including apprentices, were entitled to 2 weeks' paid vacation after 1 year's service. After the German occupation, the right to vacations was abolished and the granting of holidays was left to the option of the employer.

By the law of July 1924 the gainful employment of children under 15 was forbidden (a primary education was compulsory for all Polish citizens). Medical examination was required before any adolescent could be employed, and during employment whenever demanded by a labor inspector. Young workers were entitled to 6 hours of educational improvement weekly as part of their workweek. Overtime work by them was forbidden, as was also heavy work. In order to prevent the excessive use of low-paid adolescents, as apprentices and workers, the law of 1931 limited the proportion of adolescents to adults in industry. The plentiful supply of cheap adult labor also served to lower the proportion of adolescents; the percentage of adolescents employed in industry dropped from 7.9 percent in 1929 to 2.9 percent in 1933, and continued to decline.

Night work, with some exceptions, and underground mine work were forbidden to women, as was also dangerous and unhealthful work. Employers of more than 100 women were obliged to provide nurseries and allow mothers 2 half-hour periods to feed their infants, to be counted as part of the workday. Employers of more than 5 women were obliged to provide rest rooms with lockers and washbowls; when more than 100 women were employed, bath facilities also had to be furnished. In 1927 the protection of working women and adolescents was strengthened by the creation of special inspection units under the regional inspection offices, and by the appointment of a woman inspector under the chief national office of inspection. In 1937 there were 13 subinspectors for work by women and adolescents.

A uniform system for the administration of labor inspection under the Minister of Social Welfare came into existence as a result of the Presidential decree of July 1927. The system provided for a national chief inspector, reporting annually to the Minister of Social Welfare,

for 12 regional and 64 district labor inspectors, and for subinspectors (there were 45 in 1936). In mid-1935 the Minister of Social Welfare established a system of assistant inspectors drawn from the ranks of the workers. All establishments with paid employees were subject to inspection for conformity to legislation requiring proper working conditions and suitable sanitary conveniences. In the mining industry, however, State inspection was limited to the extent that the management was responsible for safety from the strictly technical point of view. State railroads alone were not subject to control by the national chief inspector.

Labor inspectors had the authority to call meetings for discussions of specific industrial health and safety problems, and to order employers to furnish the necessary books, documents, samples of chemicals used, and other pertinent information. Absence from such meetings or failure to conform immediately to the labor inspector's final order—whether it were to install safety devices, to provide adequate working conditions, or to cease certain operations or the use of forbidden harmful chemicals and raw materials—could be punished by a fine or imprisonment. Appeal from an order could be made to the regional director and finally to the Minister of Social Welfare. By another Presidential decree in 1927, all occupational diseases coming to the attention of physicians had to be reported to the proper Government authorities for the investigation of working conditions in the establishments where they had occurred.

WAGES AND COST OF LIVING

In the large and medium-sized industries, which employed about 470,000 workers in 1936 and in which workers received wages somewhat higher than those received in the small industries, average earnings for a 48-hour week for men, for the period 1932-36, ranged from 20.16 zlotys (\$3.83⁴) in the timber industry to 60.48 zlotys (\$11.49) in the printing and allied industries; converted to an hourly rate the range was from 0.42 zloty (8.0 cents) to 1.26 zlotys (23.9 cents). For women, the average weekly earnings ranged from 12.96 zlotys (\$2.46) in the timber industry to 29.28 zlotys (\$5.56) in the textile industry; hourly earnings ranged from 0.27 zloty (5.1 cents) an hour to 0.61 zloty (11.6 cents). For adolescents, the average weekly earnings ranged from 9.12 zlotys (\$1.73) in the printing and allied industries to 19.68 zlotys (\$3.75) in the textile industry; that is, from 0.19 zloty (3.6 cents) an hour to 0.41 zloty (7.8 cents).

Except where collective agreements between landowners and agricultural workers provided otherwise, agricultural wages were usually determined yearly for each voivodship by the Minister of Social Welfare and the Minister of Agriculture, according to age classifications; in 1935 there were 5 age classifications for men and 3 age classifications for women. In 1933-34 the total value of annual contractual wages of permanent farm laborers ranged from 731 zlotys (\$139) in southern Poland and 779 zlotys (\$148) in eastern Poland to 855 zlotys (\$162) in central Poland and 1,083 zlotys (\$206) in western Poland.

⁴ Amounts converted from zlotys at the approximate exchange rate of 1 zloty=\$0.19. This rate was relatively constant from the time of the revaluation of the American dollar (in 1933) until the German invasion.

TREND OF WAGES AND COST OF LIVING, 1929-39

After 1929, average hourly earnings reached their lowest point in 1936, when they were about 71 percent of the 1929 earnings; by March 1939 they were still only 79 percent of the 1929 level. The cost of living for this period also reached a low in 1936, when it was 58 percent of the 1929 level; by July 1939 it had risen to 61 percent of the 1929 figure. The resulting increase in real earnings indicated a relatively increased standard of living.

WORKERS' INCOME AND LIVING STANDARDS

On the basis of a study made in 1935 of 300 representative workers' families in Warsaw, it was roughly estimated that about 30 to 70 percent (depending on income and on the care exercised in dietary planning and the buying of food) of the workers' families had incomes insufficient for the purchase of an adequate diet.⁵ Rye bread and potatoes were the workers' staple foods, and the average diet did not include a sufficient amount of protective foods. Malnutrition was also prevalent among large families living on small farms of 13 acres or less; small farms of this size constituted over 60 percent of all farm holdings.

The urban housing situation, according to the 1931 census, was characterized by overcrowding: 45 percent of all urban dwellings and 72 percent of 1-room urban dwellings were overcrowded, that is, had more than 2 persons per room. In that year 36.5 percent of all urban dwellings in Poland consisted of one room only, with an average of 3.8 persons for each 1-room unit. Only 16 percent of the urban dwelling houses had running water, 13 percent had sewer connections, 38 percent had electricity, and only about 10 percent had all these facilities.

It was estimated in 1935, in the Warsaw cost-of-living study, that over 50 percent of the workers, even if they paid for rent as much as 20 percent of their total expenditures, did not have adequate housing.

CONDITIONS UNDER GERMAN RULE

Under the German occupation, even these living standards dropped sharply. Wages, by German orders, have generally been kept on the pre-war level. Because of the necessity of supplementing the limited food rations and the scarcity of goods, cost of living soared, rising as much as 500 percent according to the Congress of Polish Trade Unions in London.

The German authorities, in line with their racial theories and their expressed policy of exploitation of Polish territory to strengthen the German economy, established special wage scales for Poles, which in certain categories provided wages about half of those for German workers doing the same job. Although in the incorporated Provinces patent inequality was also the rule (Polish workers received about 20 percent less per hour than the German workers and no premium pay for overtime), the greatest contrast in these two scales of wages was in the Government General. Polish unskilled male workers in the Government General, for example, in February 1940 received 0.50 to

⁵ For details see International Labor Office (Geneva) Series B, No. 30: *The Workers' Standard of Living*, 1938 (pp. 78-79).

0.58 zloty (about 10 cents) an hour as compared with 1.0 to 1.16 zlotys (19 to 22 cents) an hour received by German unskilled workers for similar work. The inequality was not so flagrant for male skilled workers, but nevertheless existed; Poles received 0.88 to 1.02 zlotys (17 to 19 cents) an hour, whereas Germans were paid 1.20 to 1.30 zlotys (23 to 25 cents) an hour for similar work. In the incorporated Provinces, Polish workers had to pay a special tax of 15 percent of their earnings for the "reconstruction of Poland"; also an additional 2 percent for the Labor Front, though they got no benefit from it. In the Government General the cost of licenses to operate artisan, commercial, or industrial establishments was increased by 200 percent. The land tax was increased 50 percent on all farms smaller than 250 acres.

A double standard for food distribution was created; each Pole received weekly about half of a German's ration, but only of certain foods; of the distributed scarce foods he received none. Hard-working Polish laborers, however, received additional rations. Since 1942, clothing ration cards have not been distributed to Poles.

The destruction of many factories during the German campaign of 1939, and the subsequent forced limitation of production in non-essential industries, because of the lack of raw materials (e. g., cotton from the United States for the textile industries and coal for all industries), created serious unemployment among Polish workers. In April 1942, the Polish Government-in-Exile announced that about a million of the people expelled from the incorporated Provinces into the Government General had to be supported, with considerable difficulty, by charitable institutions and private persons.

Labor Organizations

The workers' freedom, in agriculture as well as industry, to organize into trade-unions dated from the beginning of the Republic and was guaranteed by the constitutions of March 17, 1921, and April 23, 1935. Trade-unions were treated as corporations. They were of three main categories: (1) Those with socialistic tendencies, (2) "Polish" unions, and (3) those with religious affiliations (i. e., "Christian" unions). The great majority of the unions were of the industrial type and included workers of various skills and trades. After the German invasion all labor organizations were suppressed and their property was confiscated.

The main activities of the trade-unions were directed toward better wages and improved working conditions, extension of assistance to unemployed and sick members, collaboration with public authorities in the settling of grievances and disputes, and provision of educational, hygienic, and economic (e. g., through cooperatives) opportunities to their members.

In 1935 there were 298 independent trade-unions with 7,383 local affiliates. Their registered membership was 941,000, and their dues-paying membership 618,000. Of the 298 unions, 147 (3,910 locals with 647,000 registered members) were those of manual workers; 98 (948 locals with 79,000 registered members) were those of white-collar workers, and 53 (2,525 locals with 215,000 registered members) were of State and local government workers. The 10 agricultural labor organizations included over 106,000 manual workers; at least

5 of these unions included workers in forests. The most important federations were: (1) The Trade-Union Federation, with 25 unions, 1,266 local units, and 284,000 registered members; (2) the Polish Trades Federation, with 14 unions, 1,582 branches, and 150,000 registered members; (3) the Union of Trade-Unions, with 24 unions, 833 branches, and 148,000 registered members; (4) the Christian Trades-Union, with 3 unions, 254 branches, and 65,000 registered members; (5) the Union of Salaried Workers' Unions, with 30 unions, 444 branches, and 39,000 registered members, and (6) the Central Trades-Union Federation, with 21 unions, 132 branches, and 36,000 registered members.

Employers in industry and agriculture also had their associations. The most important federation of industrial employers' associations was the Central Union of Polish Industries, Mines, Commerce and Finance. In October 1936 a Federation of Polish Textile Employers' Associations was formed, including practically all the textile employers' associations in Poland. The most important federations of agricultural employers' associations were (1) the Union of Polish Agricultural Organizations, (2) the Central Agricultural Society, and (3) the Controlling Council of Landed Proprietors' Organizations.

Industrial Relations

COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS

All collective agreements after July 1, 1934, had to be in writing and registered by factory inspectors. Collective agreements limiting the employment of nonunion men were illegal and could not be registered. Each agreement was binding upon the contracting parties and their members. A dissolution of a labor organization did not release its members from their obligations under the contract; nor could a worker avoid his obligations in a plant by quitting the union. The Minister of Labor, when requested by one of the contracting parties, had the power—in some cases, jointly with the Minister of Industry and Commerce—to extend the provisions of an agreement to a whole branch of production or to all similar plants in the territory covered by the agreement. The agreement, unless it contained specific time provisions, could be terminated upon 1 month's notice, or 3 months' notice in the case of white-collar workers' agreements. Collective agreements concluded by nonunion workers' delegates in plants where unions did not exist were not considered as legally recognized, but were registered and regulated by common law.

Individual contracts of employment for nonunion as well as union workers had to be in accordance with the minimum provisions of the existing collective agreement; this requirement, however, did not preclude terms more favorable to the worker. Individual contracts of employment for employees not covered by a collective agreement were regulated by law. The main requirements for such agreements included the following: Payment of wages in cash; payment for a worker's time when, through the fault of the employer, he produced no output; wages during sickness, if not insured; written contracts for employment lasting over 3 years; the limitation of probation for white-collar workers to a period of 3 months; no dismissal during a holiday or period of sickness; and notice of termination of employment of at

least 2 weeks for manual workers and from 6 weeks to 6 months (depending on the period of service) for white-collar workers. Domestic and agricultural workers were provided for in special laws.

A survey of 4,287 large and medium-scale manufacturing industries made in August 1936 revealed collective agreements in 1,607 plants, or 37 percent. These agreements covered over 260,000, or about 56 percent, of the 468,000 workers in the plants surveyed. Of the 688 industrial labor agreements filed in 1936 with the Labor Inspectorate—each of which covered one or more plants—622 had been concluded with trade-unions and 66 with the delegates of unorganized workers. Of these 688 agreements, 354 had been preceded by a strike.

Before 1939 collective agreements in agriculture had been in operation on large estates only. In the spring of 1939 an agreement was reached for the first time between an agricultural workers' organization and employers on peasant farms. Agricultural collective agreements covered the whole country and were individually obligatory over fixed areas, sometimes including several voivodships. In time they assumed the character of an agricultural labor code, providing, among other things, for fixed hours of work for different seasons of the year, wage rates, allowances in case of sickness, accident or death, 6 days' vacation after 1 year's service, mothers' pensions for the education of children on farms, and prohibition of dismissal of workers with 25 years' service.

By the order of October 31, 1939, collective agreements were permitted to continue in effect in the Government General insofar as they regulated conditions of work in given plants or establishments.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

Collective disputes were subject to a twofold system of conciliation dating from 1919, consisting of mediation by (1) labor inspectors, and (2) conciliation boards. The labor inspector, acting upon his own initiative or at the request of either of the parties to the dispute, called the parties or their representatives before him and endeavored to settle the dispute. If in the course of the proceedings the parties so decided, the inspector created a conciliation board, with representatives of both parties, of which he was chairman. If an agreement was reached, through the efforts of this board, it was embodied in a report signed by all the members of the board and was binding for 1 year.

If such conciliation failed, resort could be had to an arbitration board, provided the parties agreed to abide by its decision. In cases affecting national economic interests dangerously, the Minister of Social Welfare after April 1937 could order submission of the disputes to arbitration procedure, after failure of conciliation. Under the Presidential decree of October 27, 1933, each special arbitration board consisted of a chairman appointed by the Minister of Social Welfare, two members appointed respectively by the Minister of Justice and the Minister with jurisdiction over the branch of commerce or industry affected, 4 permanent assessors (2 representing labor and 2 industry), and a number of temporary assessors appointed by the chairman, also representing labor and industry equally. The decision of the board would be binding if accepted by the parties or confirmed by the Minister of Social Welfare, who also could (in agreement with the Ministry

of Industry and Commerce) suspend its effect if economic conditions had changed since the issuance of the award. Labor disputes in agriculture came under special laws providing for conciliation by a local factory inspector or for settlement by an arbitration board, provided over by a labor inspector.

Individual disputes between workers and employers or between workers themselves were under the jurisdiction of State-supported labor courts established by the Presidential order of March 22, 1928, and extended and regulated by the legislative decree of October 24, 1934. The local labor courts, with districts including one or more communes, were composed of a chairman, one or more vice-chairmen, and an equal number (not more than 10 from each side) of representatives of employers and workers appointed for a 3-year term. The courts had jurisdiction over all disputes involving less than 10,000 zlotys (about \$1,900), arising out of labor contracts, common employment, and membership in social or other insurance institutions. Not under their jurisdiction were Government white-collar workers (including teachers), and workers in agriculture and forestry. Disputes subject to the jurisdiction of the labor courts could be submitted to conciliation or arbitration boards, upon the agreement of the parties or at the discretion of the chairman of the labor court. In 1932-33, about 16 percent of the cases were settled by conciliation proceedings recommended by the courts. Appeals from the courts' decisions could be made to regional courts, each composed of 3 judges, and if the amount involved exceeded 300 zlotys (about \$57), also to the Supreme Court. The labor courts were abolished after the German invasion.

Strikes in Poland were at a minimum in 1930; only 312 occurred in that year. Their number, however, increased each year thereafter, the greatest increase being from 1,165 in 1935 to 2,056 in 1936. In 1937 there were 2,074 strikes, involving 543,000 workers and a loss of 3,288,000 man-days; the strikers won all or part of their demands in 1,476 of these strikes. Of the 1937 total there were 1,076 stay-in or sit-down strikes, and the workers won, in whole or in part, 811 of them. In 1938 the upward trend in the number of strikes was broken; in the first 6 months only 786 strikes occurred.

In November 1938 a decree relating to the defense of the State was promulgated, providing imprisonment for as much as 5 years for persons guilty of public incitement to (1) a general strike, (2) a general lock-out, or (3) a boycott of the supply of foodstuffs to towns. Attendance at meetings to decide on such actions was similarly punishable. This decree resulted largely from the unsuccessful 10-day strike called in August 1937 by the Peasant Party, which involved the stoppage of food supplies to the cities in order to force the Government to grant a democratic constitution, free elections, and the return of the exiled peasant political leader Witos. Workers in the larger towns had gone out on a sympathetic strike at the same time.

Social Insurance

The general structure of social insurance on a national basis was fixed by an act of March 1933 and adjusted by a legislative decree of October 1934. Five separately administered funds were created under the Central Social Insurance Institute, to provide for (1) sickness and maternity, (2) industrial accidents and diseases, (3) workers'

invalidity, old age, and death, (4) white-collar workers' invalidity, old age, and death, and (5) unemployed white-collar workers. The Medical Council under the Institute served as a central advisory body for curative and preventive assistance. Total deductions from each worker's earnings for social security amounted to 5.6 percent (5.9 percent for miners and smelters). Farm workers were not liable for social-security contributions.

After the German conquest, three systems of relief and social security were established covering, respectively, Germans, Poles, and Jews. The Germans received the full benefits of the Polish social-security laws; Poles received part of the benefits, but on a reduced scale; and Jews were entitled only to medical care and medicines.

The main provisions of the Polish social-insurance laws in force prior to the German invasion are described below.

ACCIDENT AND OCCUPATIONAL-DISEASE INSURANCE

Disabled workers and their families were provided for by the State General Compulsory Accident Insurance Scheme, which covered not only accidents but also certain occupational diseases, the number of which was increased from time to time. In April 1939, the number of persons insured under the scheme, not including agricultural workers, was 2,497,000.

Contributions to the accident-insurance fund were made solely by employers, and the rates varied according to hazard. In order to receive compensation the worker had to be incapacitated for at least 4 weeks. Benefits were payable for total disability at the rate of two-thirds of the worker's average monthly earnings up to and including 174 zlotys (\$33.06), and for partial disability—if earning capacity was reduced by at least 10 percent—by a percentage of the full allowance. In no case could the average of monthly earnings used as the basis for computation be below the current minimum average earnings of unskilled labor in the locality. If records of earnings were not available or the worker had not received full remuneration for his work (e. g., if he was an apprentice, a relative, or a new worker), benefits were based on average local weekly earnings for such work. Where the continuous services of a nurse or attendant were necessary, an additional one-third of the monthly earnings was granted. A worker with at least two-thirds disability was entitled to an additional tenth of his accident allowance for each dependent child, but the total compensation for himself and his family could not exceed his previous average monthly income. The injured worker was also entitled to free medical care and appliances.

The widow of a worker killed in an accident received each month 30 percent of his average monthly earnings. Children of the deceased—usually boys under 17 and girls under 18, with extension of the age limit to 21 years for those unable to support themselves or desiring to attend high school or (24 years) the university—were granted 20 percent each, or 25 percent if the other parent was not living. Dependent relatives and adopted children (within the age limits set for orphans) were also entitled to 20 percent. The family of a worker killed in an accident received, in addition, a lump sum amounting to the earnings of his last month at work, but not less than 75 zlotys (\$14.25).

SICKNESS INSURANCE

The social-insurance law of March 1933 provided compulsory sickness insurance for all workers throughout the country, except (1) agricultural workers, (2) civil servants, military men, and local government employees, (3) workers earning over 725 zlotys a month (about \$138), (4) temporary workers, and (5) certain others, including clergymen and foreign diplomatic workers. Agricultural workers and their families were provided for under a special scheme entitling them to medical assistance, and, if necessary, to hospital treatment at the employer's expense. Government employees also had separate legislation.

In April 1939 the number of persons insured under the general sickness scheme was 2,228,000, an increase of about 186,000 over 1938. Because of the scarcity and distribution of doctors, insured workers and their families had better medical care than the majority of the population. In 1935 there were only 12,427 doctors in the whole country, most of them (61 percent) in the 28 largest cities having 13.5 percent of the country's population. In these cities, 13 of which had a population of over 100,000 each, there was 1 doctor for every 738 inhabitants. In towns under 10,000 the ratio was 1:9,624, while in villages and agricultural communes the ratio was 1:14,556 (in the eastern voivodship of Polesie, 1:26,685).

Every sick worker was entitled to certain free medical care and to a weekly allowance amounting to 50 percent of his average weekly earnings (raised to 60 percent in May 1937), for a period of 26 weeks, provided he had been insured for 4 weeks before the occurrence of his sickness or for a minimum of 26 weeks in the preceding year. The 4-week requirement was dispensed with in cases of acute illness or acute contagious disease. In addition he received 5 percent of his average earnings for each child after the first two, with a limit of 15 percent for 5 or more children. Families of insured workers were entitled to medical assistance to the same extent as the insured, but only for 13 weeks; this included confinement assistance and infant-nursing allowances.

The contributions for health insurance amounted to 5 percent of earnings for manual workers and 4.6 percent for white-collar workers; half was paid by the employee and half by the employer.

Insured women workers had the right to interrupt work for 6 weeks before and 6 weeks after confinement. The employer was not liable to pay for such interruption of work, but the Government granted, besides medical care, a confinement subsidy, amounting to 50 percent of the average weekly earnings during the last 13 weeks of work, for a period not over 8 weeks. In May 1937 the subsidy was raised to 75 percent because of ample funds.

INVALIDITY AND OLD-AGE PENSIONS

An invalidity or old-age pension was granted to every worker reaching the age of 65 or incapacitated otherwise than by industrial accident or occupational disease, provided he had made his insurance contributions for at least 60 months (200 weeks in the last 10 years, with 50 in the preceding 3 years, for manual workers, and a shorter period for miners and foundry workers).

For white-collar workers the pension amounted to two-fifths of the salary up to 72 zlotys (\$13.68) a week with a supplement for each month of insurance over 10 years. Manual workers received an annual fixed basic amount (averaging 10 to 16 percent of the average earnings of all workers who had received invalidity pensions during the last year) plus an individual supplement varying, according to the number of years of insurance payments, from 10 to 40 percent of the monthly salary. Pensioned invalids also received allowances for dependent children. A widow's pension (if she was incapable of working or was 60 years of age or older) amounted to half of what her pensioned husband had been receiving. Children of the deceased received 20 percent each, and an additional 15 percent as a group if both parents were dead. The combined allowance for the family, however, could not exceed the total benefits to which the insured pensioner was entitled.

The rate of contribution, beginning with April 1939, was 8.0 percent of salary for white-collar workers, 5.2 percent for manual workers, and 5.8 percent for miners and foundry workers. Employers paid about 40 percent and the workers the remainder of these contributions.

Under the German occupation, retirement pensions were continued for persons who had retired before August 31, 1939. Retired German workers, however, received 20 percent more than was provided for under the Polish law.

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

In mid-1938, nearly 1,500,000 workers (1,153,000 manual and 345,000 white-collar workers) were insured against unemployment.

Manual workers.—Manual workers 16 years of age or older, in establishments employing 5 or more persons (except agricultural or State-operated enterprises), were insured with the Labor Fund. The Fund's resources were obtained principally from a 2-percent levy on pay rolls and from a contribution by the State Treasury amounting to 50 percent of the proceeds from the pay-roll tax. Of the 2-percent levy one-fourth was paid by the employee and three-fourths by the employer.

In order to draw unemployment benefit the unemployed worker had to show that he had had 26 weeks' work, during the preceding year, in an insured establishment. Benefit was payable for 13 weeks, starting on the tenth day after his registration with a public placement office, but could be extended to 17 weeks in certain cases. Generally, when funds were available, the allowance amounted to 30 percent of the worker's earnings during the last 13 weeks of employment; earnings above an average of 6 zlotys (\$1.14) a day, however, did not figure in the computation of the allowance. An additional 5 to 20 percent of the allowance was granted to the worker, according to the number of dependents in his family. Seasonal workers also could be insured against unemployment, but their contributions were 4 percent (instead of 2) and were paid half by employer, half by worker. Workers employed less than 3 days a week were also entitled to unemployment benefits.

White-collar workers.—Unemployment insurance for white-collar workers was administered by the Insurance Fund for White-Collar Workers of the Central Social Insurance Institute, under the Ministry of Public Welfare. This insurance was compulsory for all white-collar workers 16 to 60 years of age.

Unemployment benefits were usually granted for a period of 6 months, provided the worker had at least 12 months' employment within the last 24 months. These benefits usually amounted to 30 percent of salary for single persons, and 40 percent for persons with dependent families. An additional 10 percent was granted for each dependent; however, the total allowances to an unemployed person and his family could not exceed the worker's basic salary. Earnings above 725 zlotys (\$137.75) a month were not considered in computing the allowance. No benefit could be less than 30 zlotys (\$5.70) a month.

Funds for white-collar unemployment benefits were raised by a levy, varying from 2 to 3 percent of the worker's salary, depending on the financial status of the insurance fund. The employer paid the entire levy for workers earning less than 60 zlotys (\$11.40) a month; for higher-paid employees the employer's share decreased progressively to two-fifths in case of employees earning over 800 zlotys (\$152.00) a month.

Under the German occupation unemployment benefits were stopped, except for German workers.

Cooperative Associations

Consumers' cooperation in Poland had its beginning in 1869, while wholesale cooperatives date from 1911. The cooperative movement grew slowly at first but rapidly after the first World War. In 1933 it was estimated that consumers' cooperatives accounted for about 3 percent of the general retail trade of Poland and about 10 percent of the trade in food.

At the end of 1936, of the total of 13,340 active cooperative societies in Poland, 12,004, with a membership of 2,804,000, were affiliated with 10 federations or auditing unions. These included 4 Polish unions with 7,199 local associations having 2,005,000 members; 2 Ukrainian and Ruthenian unions with 3,272 cooperatives having 598,000 members; 2 Jewish unions with 765 cooperatives having 144,000 members; and 2 German unions with 768 cooperatives having 57,000 members. Of the 12,004 cooperatives, 5,423 (3,649 of them agricultural) were credit cooperatives with 1,471,000 members (774,000 agricultural), 2,659 were agricultural consumers' cooperatives with 326,000 members, 1,552 were consumers' cooperatives with 333,000 members, 1,323 were dairy cooperatives with 543,000 members, 392 were agricultural trading cooperatives with 64,000 members, 235 were housing cooperatives with 22,000 members, and there were 420 others with 45,000 members. This last group included 8 cooperative health associations, each operating over a territory of from 6 to 10 villages.

In 1936 the cooperative societies in the auditing unions sold goods amounting to 496 million zlotys (over \$94,000,000). Complete statistics were not available for the unaffiliated cooperative societies, though a survey of 1,514 of them (including many inactive cooperatives) showed in 1936 a membership of 154,000.

The Polish Government's attitude toward the cooperatives was friendly, and certain Government aid and credit was extended to the Polish cooperatives. Despite Government encouragement the agricultural cooperative movement, considerable as it was, had failed to

grow fast enough to meet the country's need, chiefly because of the general illiteracy of peasants in eastern Poland and of their individualistic character in western Poland.

Cooperatives after the German invasion.—The Polish cooperatives ceased to exist in the Provinces incorporated into the Reich. They were allowed to continue in the Government General under rigid control, primarily in order to provide the machinery for the collection and distribution of foodstuffs and other consumer goods and to drive out of business the numerous independent Jewish tradesmen. Agricultural cooperatives were used for the collection of requisitioned farm products and for the sale of German goods to farmers in exchange for farm products at prices fixed by the Germans. In the Polish territories annexed by the Soviet Union the urban cooperatives had been dissolved, but the agricultural cooperatives had been permitted to continue. After expelling the Russians from eastern Poland in 1941, the Germans promoted the establishment of new cooperatives in the Ruthenian agricultural regions in their effort to increase their supply of food and to win the good will of the Ruthenians.



Report of President's Committee on Portal-to-Portal Travel Time in Bituminous-Coal Mining

THE PRESIDENT, on November 8, 1943, appointed a committee to secure "more exact information as to actual travel time" in bituminous-coal mining, and to examine "the possibility of reducing the amount of travel time." This committee was composed of Morris L. Cooke as public member, R. L. Ireland, Jr., representing the operators, and Thomas Kennedy, representing the United Mine Workers. The committee filed two progress reports, on February 2 and on April, 10, 1944, respectively. A final report was made on May 24.

The information contained in the report was obtained by the use of a questionnaire sent to representatives of coal operators associations and of the United Mine Workers. The final report stated that the average number of minutes of travel time from portal to the place of employment was 29.40 minutes, and that the average travel time from place of employment to portal was 27.89 minutes, the daily average travel time from portal to portal being 57.29 minutes. These averages relate to the travel time of 220,417 members of the United Mine Workers, working in 1,430 mines and producing 92.8 percent of the coal produced in mines operated under contract with the union. The committee states that "the data from all districts are so adequate that no subsequent returns are likely to affect the stated travel time."

Table 1 gives data, by State or region and price area, for all underground workers.

TABLE 1.—Portal-to-Portal Travel Time of Underground Workers in Bituminous-Coal Mines, 1943¹

Coal act district and price area	Portal to place of employment		Place of employment to portal		Portal-to-portal—Weighted average travel time (minutes)
	Number of men covered by report	Weighted average travel time (minutes)	Number of men covered by report	Weighted average travel time (minutes)	
All areas.....	220,417	29.40	220,367	27.89	57.29
Price Area No. 1.....	173,936	29.77	173,894	28.47	58.24
1. Eastern Pennsylvania.....	25,978	30.77	25,978	30.05	60.82
2. Western Pennsylvania.....	37,287	32.70	37,249	30.74	63.44
3. Northern West Virginia.....	13,702	29.80	13,702	28.94	58.74
4. Ohio.....	9,956	32.76	9,956	30.81	63.57
5. Michigan.....	90	23.28	90	23.28	46.56
6. Panhandle West Virginia.....	2,059	42.11	2,057	41.98	84.09
Total northern.....	89,042	31.91	89,032	30.52	62.43
7. Southern No. 1.....	31,415	28.80	31,450	27.66	56.46
8. Southern No. 2.....	53,479	29.80	53,412	25.52	52.32
Total southern.....	84,894	27.54	84,862	26.32	53.96
Price Area No. 2.....	17,235	27.63	17,226	24.06	51.69
9. Western Kentucky.....	2,737	24.10	2,737	22.87	46.97
10. Illinois.....	10,154	27.78	10,145	23.29	51.07
11. Indiana.....	3,442	31.79	3,442	28.29	60.08
12. Iowa.....	902	20.90	902	20.27	41.17
Price Area No. 3:					
13. Alabama.....	14,589	32.08	14,589	29.90	61.98
Price Area No. 4:					
14. Arkansas and Eastern Oklahoma.....	780	20.32	780	19.67	39.99
Price Area No. 5:					
15. Southwestern.....	718	17.32	718	17.36	34.68
Price Area No. 6.....	5,503	25.49	5,504	24.76	50.25
16. Northern Colorado.....	1,316	21.73	1,317	20.21	41.94
17. Southern Colorado.....	3,741	26.21	3,741	25.42	51.65
18. New Mexico.....	446	30.52	446	32.69	63.21
Price Area No. 7.....	6,095	25.17	6,095	24.03	49.20
19. Wyoming.....	2,854	27.80	2,854	25.62	53.42
20. Utah.....	3,241	22.56	3,241	22.63	45.49
Price Area No. 9:					
22. Montana.....	747	21.97	747	21.18	43.15
Price Area No. 10:					
23. Washington.....	814	22.16	814	22.47	44.63

¹ Data are from Report of President's Committee on Portal-to-Portal Travel Time, May 24, 1944. The report relates only to the members of the United Mine Workers of America and covers 92.8 percent of tonnage produced in April 1943 at deep mines having employees affiliated with the U. M. W. A.

The general average for all underground workers (57.29 minutes) was somewhat smaller than the average for production men only, the main groups being miners and loaders. The average for all production men, the number covered being 152,575, was given as 59.55 minutes. The average for piece workers, numbering 90,097, was 58.20 minutes, and the average for production day men, numbering 62,478, was 61.50 minutes. Table 2 gives data, by State or region and price area, for production men only.

TABLE 2.—Portal-to-Portal Travel Time of Underground Production Men Only, in Bituminous-Coal Mines, 1943¹

Coal act district and price area	Piece workers		Day men		Total production employees	
	Number of men	Weighted average travel time (minutes)	Number of men	Weighted average travel time (minutes)	Number of men	Weighted average travel time (minutes)
All areas.....	90,096	58.20	62,478	61.50	152,575	59.55
Price Area No. 1.....	79,672	58.52	42,612	64.26	122,284	60.52
1. Eastern Pennsylvania.....	16,798	60.39	3,039	70.89	19,837	62.00
2. Western Pennsylvania.....	17,395	64.11	9,970	70.50	27,365	66.44
3. Northern West Virginia.....	4,003	59.49	5,877	63.53	9,880	61.89
4. Ohio.....	2,837	55.72	4,383	72.31	7,220	65.79
5. Michigan.....	59	50.00			59	50.00
6. Panhandle West Virginia.....	795	76.76	826	97.14	1,621	87.14
Total Northern.....	41,887	61.83	24,095	70.09	65,982	64.85
7. Southern No. 1.....	14,254	58.79	5,288	62.16	19,542	59.70
8. Southern No. 2.....	23,531	62.48	13,229	54.48	36,760	53.20
Total Southern.....	37,785	54.86	18,517	56.68	56,302	55.46
Price Area No. 2.....	2,344	43.95	7,564	57.13	9,908	54.01
9. Western Kentucky.....	675	48.65	1,180	44.78	1,855	46.19
10. Illinois.....	931	44.64	4,328	57.37	5,259	55.11
11. Indiana.....	205	40.36	1,927	63.79	2,132	61.54
12. Iowa.....	533	35.17	129	62.58	662	42.93
Price Area No. 3:						
13. Alabama.....	4,766	65.79	4,777	64.39	9,543	65.00
Price Area No. 4:						
14. Arkansas and Eastern Oklahoma.....	267	42.92	297	40.53	564	41.66
Price Area No. 5:						
15. Southwestern.....	484	35.35	110	40.53	594	36.31
Price Area No. 6.....	2,166	55.39	1,739	45.19	3,905	50.85
16. Northern Colorado.....	296	45.76	603	41.25	899	42.74
17. Southern Colorado.....	1,565	54.64	1,128	47.28	2,693	51.50
18. New Mexico.....	302	69.21	8	47.50	310	68.65
Price Area No. 7.....	320	38.64	4,373	51.04	4,693	50.19
19. Wyoming.....	141	35.30	1,983	54.98	2,124	53.67
20. Utah.....	179	41.27	2,390	47.77	2,569	47.31
Price Area No. 9:						
22. Montana.....			517	43.68	517	43.68
Price Area No. 10:						
23. Washington.....	78	50.60	489	47.55	567	47.97

¹ Data are from Report of President's Committee on Portal-to-Portal Travel Time, May 24, 1944.

As for possible future reductions in travel time, the committee stated that sizable reductions on either a district or a national basis are not likely to be made until after the war. Many mines, it was stated, operate under local conditions which make the creation of new portals impracticable; and where changes, such as sinking new shafts or the preparation of other travel ways nearer to the working faces can be made, these changes must for the most part be postponed because of the difficulty, during the war, of securing the necessary labor and materials.

Economic Situation of White-Collar Workers

EARLY in 1944 the Subcommittee on Wartime Health and Education of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor conducted hearings on the economic situation of white-collar and other fixed-income groups in the United States, with the object of ascertaining (1) the number of

citizens in these groups whose incomes had remained static or had increased little since the war began, (2) how much their cost of living had risen, and (3) the extent to which they had suffered as a result of having to live on fixed or relatively stable incomes in a wartime economy of ascending prices.

The Committee reported that some 20,000,000 citizens have not enjoyed income increases commensurate with the most conservative estimate of the increase in cost of living. A large proportion had substandard or below-subsistence-level incomes before the war, and the hardships imposed upon them by war conditions have greatly exceeded those borne by other groups in the population. In addition to these 20,000,000 persons, the Committee stated, there were in November 1943 about 3,500,000 servicemen's families which were wholly or partially dependent upon fixed military allowances.

In its first interim report the Committee expressed the belief that the inequality of sacrifice made by the low-income groups covered by its investigation, as compared with the higher income groups, is "unjust, unnecessary, and detrimental to the health, morale, and efficiency of a nation at war." In order to correct the inequities in the position of these low-income groups, and to forestall the further dangers of inflation, the Committee made the following recommendations:¹

1. That the present inflationary trend be checked by institution of even more rigid price controls, and that the Office of Price Administration be granted funds necessary to assure strict enforcement of such controls.

2. That the War Labor Board cease applying the "Little Steel" formula to substandard wages and salaries, and that a sound, simple, and expeditious procedure for raising such wages and salaries be developed within the War Labor Board. As a concrete proposal, the committee suggests the removal of all controls from incomes of \$200 or less per month for heads of families and \$150 or less per month for unmarried persons. Employers should be permitted to raise salaries or wages to these levels without application of any kind to the War Labor Board.

3. That the War Labor Board provide both employers and employees with easily understood explanations of its policies and rules. Most workers and many employers today are bewildered by the intricate operations of the wage-stabilization program, and unscrupulous employers sometimes take advantage of the fact that workers do not understand what is and what is not permitted with regard to wage adjustments.

4. That State, county, and municipal governments increase the salaries of their low-paid workers; that special attention be given to increasing the salaries of teachers, who are responsible to so great an extent for the training and education of the children and youth of America; that if these adjustments are not effected the Federal Government provide relief for such workers through higher income-tax exemptions.

5. That social security and public assistance benefits be increased and extended in accordance with the recommendations made by the Social Security Board.

6. That funds be made available to the Bureau of Labor Statistics to enable it to undertake the preparation of a cost-of-living index which will accurately reflect changes in living standards as determined by current relationships between prices and income, and which will take into account the pertinent wartime factors to which no weight or insufficient weight is given by the Bureau's present index.

¹ U. S. Congress. Senate. Committee on Education and Labor. Subcommittee on Wartime Health and Education. Wartime Health and Education: White-Collar and Fixed Income Groups in the War Economy. (Subcommittee report No. 1, 78th Cong., 2d sess.)

Absenteeism and Prevention of Fatigue in British Factories

THE Industrial Health Research Board of Great Britain recently made studies of absenteeism in nearly 60 factories, varying in size from small companies to those having 25,000 employees.¹ Results indicate that differences between establishments, and also between men and women workers, are quite large. Lost time among men varied between 5 and 10 percent of the possible hours of work, while women often lost from 8 to 20 percent. Estimates are that in peacetime 5 percent should be the maximum rate of absenteeism, but under wartime conditions 6 to 8 percent for men and 10 to 15 percent for women may not be too high. The study inquired into causes of absenteeism, with the purpose of recommending methods by which management and labor can reduce absences.

Absenteeism and Its Causes

Hours in excess of 60 for men and 55 for women increased the rate of absence. The length (in days) of the working week proved to be of especial importance in this connection, and a week-end break of at least 1½ days was recommended. Among other factors tending to increase absences were bad working conditions; idle time, especially if it was not known to be due to unavoidable causes; poor relations between management and the workers; difficult transportation to and from work; and, in the case of married women, the problems of running a home and working in a factory simultaneously. Employees sometimes stayed away from work if they did not need the money very badly or if they thought their wages were computed unfairly, but absence to avoid paying income tax did not seem to be very frequent.

In combination, these circumstances often create extremely high rates of absence. For example, in some of the very large and comparatively new factories, situated a long way from the workers' homes and employing many women unused to factory work, absenteeism was almost twice as high as in some of the smaller, long-established works within easy traveling distance.

The most important single cause of absence, however, was illness, accounting for at least half of all lost time. Illness was directly connected with all the above conditions but it was even more closely allied with another factor which the Board considered of outstanding importance—the mental attitude of individual workers. Boredom, often caused by fatigue, and a lack of feeling of urgency about the war seemed to be the principal factors in a mental attitude leading to absenteeism.

The Board made several suggestions for reducing the absence rate. The conditions of mind mentioned often may be prevented by making sure that each person is suited to his job; avoiding long periods of work without breaks and providing intervals of music; having occasional competitions; demonstrating the part played in the finished product by each person's particular job; and discussing the issues at

¹ Conditions for Industrial Health and Efficiency. Pamphlet No. 2: Absence from Work; Prevention of Fatigue. London, Industrial Health Research Board, 1943.

stake in the war. Recommendations for looking after health included proper meals, sleep, and precautions against injury. The Board was of the opinion that the men and women on the job should themselves take the lead in undertaking these various measures.

Problem of Fatigue

Some discussion was also devoted in the report to the problem of fatigue. The point was emphasized that fatigue and boredom are very closely related, and the effects as well as the symptoms are often identical. Both result in lowered output, lowered quality of work, increased number of accidents, and a disheartening or irritating effect on the worker. Here again stress was laid on the importance of ascertaining the number of hours and days per week which produce the maximum output, and also the most satisfactory length of the daily working period. Many of the other factors in creating fatigue and boredom were the same as those contributing to absenteeism, such as the nature of the job (i. e., repetitive, strenuous or uncomfortable, or exacting skilled work, or jobs involving little physical movement), bad working conditions, lack of incentives, and the anxieties and demands of the worker's life outside the factory. Remedies suggested to fit the various conditions listed were generally similar to those recommended for reduction of absenteeism.

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1 War

Wartime Policies

Policies for Improving the Manpower Situation

BECAUSE the successful conduct of the war requires channeling of the available male labor to jobs of greatest war-production urgency, the War Manpower Commission has issued orders, instructions, and examples of worker utilization, which aim to give the vital industries such labor as is available.

*Establishment of Priority-Referral System*¹

Regional Manpower Directors have been notified to put into effect, not later than July 1, 1944, the priority referral system. This system is defined as the direction of workers to jobs in the order of the urgency of war needs, and is to be Nation-wide. It is to be established after consultation with regional and area committees, to the degree necessitated by regional and national manpower demands. The system provides that employers are to hire all male workers only from those referred by the U. S. Employment Service, or by approved arrangements.

A second step in carrying out the priority-referral plan consists of setting and fixing employment ceilings in the 184 areas of labor shortage as defined by the WMC. The employment ceiling is the level of total employment or the number of specified types of employees which an establishment is not permitted to exceed.

In addition to the foregoing, manpower priorities committees are to be created in all the critical labor-shortage areas. By June 4, 1944, such committees had been formed in 56 areas. These committees determine, on the basis of production demands, which employers within the area are to have the first call for labor. They also work with the area director in establishing employment ceilings.

The fourth and final step in carrying out the priority-referral plan is the intensification of the recruiting activities of the Employment Service, so that men may be transferred from areas of labor surplus into those areas where urgent war production requires more labor.

To the greatest degree consistent with war needs, workers subject to priority referral are to be given freedom of choice as to the jobs they wish to accept. Likewise, employers are to be allowed similar freedom as to workers they wish to employ. However, the filling of jobs and the referral of workers are to be channeled through the USES or through arrangements approved by that agency.

To achieve this objective, the U. S. Employment Service, or other authorized referral agency, is to offer to each worker successive job opportunities for which he is qualified, in essential, and locally needed

¹ War Manpower Commission: Press release June 4, 1944; Field Instruction No. 416, June 1, 1944.

activity, in the order of their relative urgency to the war effort. A worker may be referred to other than essential jobs only when (1) he is not needed for any essential jobs in the area, (2) he is not able to accept essential jobs outside the area, or (3) there is undue hardship or special emergency circumstances or other good cause which prevents the acceptance of an essential job.

On the basis of the stringency of its labor-market situation and the urgency of production in the area, and subject to fair and reasonable standards, an area-priority referral program may provide for limiting the number of jobs offered to a worker, exclusive of those jobs which the worker has good cause for refusing.

Restrictions on Designations of Locally Needed Activities²

Regional Manpower Directors were instructed on May 12, 1944, to restrict (except on approval by headquarters) the approval of locally needed designations to 15 trades and services. When an activity is listed as locally needed, its employees may not transfer to other jobs without first securing statements of availability, and Selective Service registrants employed by such an undertaking are eligible for occupational deferment. These designations are to be made only when it appears that there might be a collapse of the services necessary for health, welfare, and safety of an area and of the services necessary to the continuance of essential activities.

These trades and services are as follows:

1. Wholesale distribution of automotive parts, supply, and equipment.
2. Wholesale distribution of drugs.
3. Wholesale and retail dry-cleaning services.
4. Wholesale and retail distribution of seed, hay, and grain, and farmers' supplies.
5. Wholesale and retail distribution of foods.
6. Wholesale and retail distribution of fuel.
7. Hotels.
8. Wholesale and retail distribution of ice.
9. Laundries, power-driven.
10. Linen supply.
11. Wholesale and retail distribution of milk and dairy products.
12. Wholesale distribution of petroleum products.
13. Restaurants, cafeterias, and industrial feeding services.
14. Taxicab services, operation of.
15. Cartage, local.

In the future, it will be necessary for regional offices to present a complete factual statement in support of the necessity for approval of designations in trades and services other than those listed above.

Role of WMC in Placement of Agricultural Workers³

The War Manpower Commission, on June 5, 1944, issued a statement of policy and reporting requirements concerning the placement of agricultural workers by local offices of the Employment Service.

The Commission states that the War Food Administration and the State Extension Services are responsible for agricultural-placement activities. In some cases, however, according to the WMC, contracts have been made with the State War Manpower Commission providing that the local USES offices will perform these responsibilities. At the

² War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No. 387, May 12, 1944.

³ War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No. 427, June 5, 1944.

same time, the local employment offices are authorized to receive requests for workers from farm employers in some areas not covered by these contracts. In such areas, when an employer places an order for agricultural workers with a local office, the latter may serve him as an incidental phase of its normal operations, irrespective of the existence or nonexistence of an agreement between the State War Manpower Commission and the War Food Administration.

Regional and Local Attempts to Alleviate Manpower Shortages⁴

The following instances were reported by the War Manpower Commission, of measures used to combat the obstacles of absenteeism and labor shortage.

Aliens who have once obtained permits to work in a plant having confidential Army and Navy contracts need no longer go through a lengthy routine every time they apply for a job in another plant of the same kind. In order to secure such work, the alien is required to answer a special questionnaire, filled out by his prospective employer. The completed questionnaire is then sent to the Army Service Command having jurisdiction over the plant, and the employer is notified officially whether or not the alien may be employed there. In order to expedite his reemployment after he has once been approved, an employer discharging an alien so approved is requested to give the latter a photostatic copy of his original notice from the War Department. This copy speeds the way for his approval thereafter by any Service Command.

Labor recruiting by aeroplane—that is, the scattering of “help wanted” circulars from the skies, has proved effective for Triumph Explosives, Inc., near Elkton, Maryland. Faced with the task of obtaining 10,000 workers to produce anti-aircraft ammunition and incendiary bombs, recruiting crews were dispatched to neighboring States. Finding it impossible to reach certain sections of West Virginia by conventional means, the recruiter for that area hired a commercial pilot to drop 50,000 handbills in 3 counties. For days following this action many applicants, most of them with the circulars in their possession, appeared at local USES offices.



Occupational-Deferment Policies of National Selective Service System⁵

THE National Selective Service System recently amended its occupational-classification policies, taking into account the fact that the number of men required to bring the armed forces to their required strength is now relatively small, and that the greatest immediate need is for physically fit men in the younger age groups, capable of the highest degree of efficiency under combat conditions. To meet these requirements, deferment is no longer based largely upon dependency and occupation, but now is made mainly with regard to age and occupation.

⁴ War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No. 418, May 29, 1944.

⁵ National Headquarters Selective Service System, Transmittal Memorandum No. 119, subject Local Board Memorandum No. 118, as amended May 12, 1944, and attachments. Washington, May 12, 1944. See also Monthly Labor Review, May 1944 (pp. 967-968).

No registrant in the age group 18 to 25 may ordinarily be retained or placed in class II-A or class II-B. Exception to this rule is made when the local board finds the registrant "necessary to and regularly engaged in" an activity in war production or in support of the national health, safety, or interest, or when a special form (42 or 42-A) has been duly filed for him. Another exception is to be made for registrants disqualified for military service or qualified for limited military service only. Such persons may be placed in class II-A if they are regularly engaged in an activity in support of the national health, safety, or interest, or in class II-B if they are regularly engaged in an activity in war production.

Registrants from 26 to 29 years of age, inclusive, may be retained or placed in class II-A or class II-B under the following considerations: Such a man may be in class II-A if he is found to be necessary to and regularly engaged in an activity in support of the national health, safety, or interest, or in class II-B if he is found necessary to and regularly engaged in an activity in war production. To persons in this age group who are disqualified for military service or qualified for limited military service only, the same rules apply as in the case of similar individuals in the 18-to-25 age bracket.

Fathers in the age group 26 to 29, if other factors are equal, will normally be accorded occupational deferment in preference to non-fathers in this age group.

Registrants in the age groups 30 to 37 (whether or not they have been found disqualified for any military service or qualified for limited military service only) are to be retained or placed in class II-A or class II-B if they satisfy the same conditions that are required of the younger age groups.

Currently unacceptable for induction by the armed forces are registrants of ages 38 to 44. The local boards, therefore, are informed that there is no urgent need for the classification or reclassification of such registrants at this time.

It is largely the function of the local board to determine the status of a registrant with respect to an activity in war production or in support of the national health, safety, or interest. To aid in determining that status, the boards are advised to use as a guide the List of Essential Activities⁶ prepared by the War Manpower Commission. For their further guidance, the boards are told that consideration for occupational deferment may be given on a local basis to registrants engaged in activities which are related to utilities, food, clothing, fuel, housing, health, safety, and other services or endeavors required for the preservation and effectiveness of the life of a nation at war.

Critical Activities Used in Occupational Deferment⁷

The Inter-Agency Committee on Occupational Deferment submitted to the Selective Service System on May 24, 1944, further recommendations on critical activities and programs, supplementing an earlier list of April 11. These lists are designed to assist the Director of that System in devising instructions for Selective Service boards on the handling of claims for deferment of registrants under

⁶ For list and definition of essential industries, see *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1943 (p. 1093) and March 1944 (p. 820).

⁷ War Manpower Commission, press release April 11, 1944; Field Instruction No. 412, May 24, 1944.

26 years of age. These recommendations were accepted by the Selective Service System.⁸

The list of critical activities and programs submitted by the Inter-Agency Committee on Occupational Deferment follows:

1. Office of Rubber Director
 - Research, piloting, and production of synthetic rubbers, butadiene and styrene
 - Production of essential raw materials in 3 Government-owned plants operated by Rubber Reserve Co. (at Memphis, Naugatuck, and Philadelphia)
 - Manufacture of reclaimed rubber
 - Manufacture of essential rubber goods permitted under Rubber Order R-1
 - Manufacture of rubber-processing machinery
 - Firestone Rubber Plantation in Liberia
2. Army Service Forces
 - Rockets
 - Radar
 - Critical components for trucks, heavy and light-heavy (2½ ton and heavier), including truck trailers and class I and II tractors
 - Research and development work specifically assigned by the technical services
 - Trained chemists for production of explosives (not to exceed 210)
3. Army Air Forces
 - Group I-IV Aircraft—only specified items
4. Navy Department
 - Landing craft
 - Rockets
 - Submarine
 - Aircraft carriers
 - High-capacity ammunition
 - Radar
 - Aircraft in Group I-IV
 - Ships and aircraft maintenance, including modification centers
 - Cruiser construction in two East Coast shipyards (not to exceed 150 in each)
5. War Production Board
 - Component parts of approved critical programs when such production is not under the direct supervision of the services or other claimant agencies
 - Riggers and toppers in logging operations in five Western States (not to exceed 300)
6. Maritime Commission
 - Combat loaded transports
 - Combat loaded cargo vessels and tankers
7. Petroleum Administration for War
 - Aviation gasoline program and synthetic rubber components
 - Technical services vital to aviation gasoline program and synthetic rubber components
 - Special technical services essential to production of crude petroleum
 - Technical services relating to the manufacture of special lubricants (not to exceed 100)
8. Office of Defense Transportation
 - Great Lakes and inland waterways: (a) Only captains and chief engineers; (b) other licensed officers for 1944 navigation season
 - Airlines: Flight personnel; ground personnel only outside the continental United States
 - Railroads: Personnel engaged in railway and motor transport service directly related to the movement of war freight necessary to support the immediate war objectives, the withdrawal of which would decrease the safety, speed, and volume of movement so as to affect adversely such war objectives
 - (a) Railway personnel engaged in assembly line, haul, and break-up of railway freight trains

⁸Information from the National Selective Service System.

- (b) Key personnel of those trucking companies whose equipment is more than 16,000 tons gross weight of vehicles
Air transport and ferry personnel of cobelligerents certified by ODT, on the same basis as for United States personnel
(For hire—trucking—same as definition for railroads) see above
9. War Shipping Administration
Pharmacist mates
Off-shore shipping (active seagoing personnel and men in training for service in the Merchant Marine—no more men under 26 are being recruited for training)
 10. Board of War Communications
International radiotelegraph, radiotelephone, and cable carriers outside the continental United States
 11. War Food Administration
Special technical services essential to wet corn milling
 12. Coordinator of Fisheries
Operation of commercial fishing vessels of 20 gross tons or over—captains only
 13. National Roster
 - (a) Students graduating before July 1, 1944, in specified scientific and specialized fields
 - (b) Students in good standing in recognized schools—medical, dental, veterinary, and osteopathic (this is restricted to students graduating within 24 months after July 1, 1944)
 - (c) Office of Scientific Research and Development—Scientists (6 in number) recommended by this office
 14. Review Committee on Deferment of Government Employees
Employees of foreign governments as certified by the Central Committee for the deferment of U. S. Government employees
Federal Government employees who come within criteria previously adopted by the Committee and as certified by the Central Committee



Suspension of 8-hour Law for Laborers and Mechanics in Veterans Administration

THE legal provisions prohibiting more than 8 hours of labor per day by laborers and mechanics of the Veterans Administration on public work of the United States were suspended for the duration of the present emergency by Executive Order No. 9441 of May 11, 1944.¹ This order applies to such employees who are engaged on any public work within the United States that is essential to the prosecution of the war. These public-work activities include, but are not confined to, construction, alteration, repair, maintenance, and operation of Veterans Administration facilities needed for the care and treatment of war veterans.

To deal with the matter of increased remuneration for the additional hours of work, the Executive order states that "the wages and overtime pay of all laborers and mechanics so employed by the Veterans Administration shall be computed in accordance with the provisions of existing law."

¹ Federal Register, May 16, 1944 (p. 5101).

Policies for Employment of Prisoners of War

ON May 26, 1944, there were 100,000 prisoners of war in the United States, available for all kinds of manual labor.¹ Policies and standards governing the employment of these prisoners were issued recently by the War Manpower Commission.²

Prisoners of war are under the jurisdiction of the War Department, which is using a large number of them at Army installations. The remainder are available for seasonal work, and it is the practice of the War Department to supply them for such work, according to priorities specified by the War Manpower Commission.

The Commission, in turn, applies the following employment policies to the utilization of this type of labor by private employers and by Federal agencies other than the War and Navy Departments: (1) Prisoners of war are not to be employed to displace employed workers or in any activity which will impair the wages, working conditions, and employment opportunities of free labor; (2) such workers are to be employed only when free labor is not available and cannot be recruited from other areas within a reasonable length of time; (3) they are not to be made available for private employment at a cost to the employer of less than that for free labor; and (4) prisoners of war are to be employed on essential projects to the fullest extent compatible with the provisions of the Geneva Convention, security regulations, and the preceding policy statements.

Regarding the standards affecting the utilization of prisoner-of-war labor established by the War Manpower Commission, the following should be noted: The wage rate for such labor is to be that paid free labor in the area for comparable work. Housing for the prisoners must be approved by the camp commander, and is to be substantially the same as for troops in a base camp. Working conditions must be equivalent to those prevailing in the locality for civilian workers performing similar work.

Policies are established likewise with respect to the sphere of management-labor manpower committees and organized labor in the utilization of prisoner-of-war labor. Local management-labor committees are to be consulted whenever it is proposed to certify for the use of such labor in an area. These committees are to be fully apprised of the program and given full opportunity to examine conditions and cooperate with local War Manpower Commission officers in developing manpower programs for the area, including the utilization of prisoners of war. Where union agreements are in effect, the represented union is to be consulted and given every opportunity to assist in recruiting free labor before certification is submitted for prisoner-of-war labor. When possible, the concurrence of the represented union in the utilization of prisoner-of-war labor is to be obtained.

¹ White House press release, May 26, 1944.

² War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No. 408, May 22, 1944.

WMC Policy for Engineering Companies Engaged in Labor Brokerage¹

THE War Manpower Commission on May 19, 1944, informed all Regional Manpower Directors of the policy to be followed with engineering service companies which engage in labor brokerage. Such companies were recently the object of joint action by five Federal agencies,² and the instructions of May 19 further define the policy of the WMC with regard to these labor brokers.

Labor-brokerage activity, according to this instruction, "means the furnishing by an engineering company of its employees to work at a manufacturer's premises, when the labor of such workers is not performed" under the following conditions: (1) "as a part of a specific engineering project contracted by a written order which describes the work to be done and the time estimated for completion, and (2) under the direction and supervision of working leaders or other qualified personnel of the engineering company."

The instruction also states that "whenever it is determined that an engineering company has failed or refused to discontinue labor-brokerage activities, * * * the area manpower director for the area in which the home office of the engineering company is located will initiate and take responsibility for the investigation of all improper hires by the company since April 18, 1943." The engineering company is to be required to release any workers in its employ whom it has hired in contravention of an applicable employment-stabilization program. If it fails to do so promptly, the area director concerned is to require the manufacturer or other person or company at whose premises such worker is employed to bring about an immediate termination of the services of the workers at his premises. Any manufacturer who fails to terminate the services of any such worker is to be denied referral and recruitment service and privileges as long as such workers continue their services at his premises.

¹ U. S. War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No. 394, May 19, 1944.

² See Monthly Labor Review, June 1944 (p. 1186).

Industrial Accidents

Industrial Injuries, March 1944

INJURIES experienced at work disabled approximately 65,000 employees of manufacturing plants during March, with a resulting loss of 1,300,000 man-days of production. This brings the total estimate of disabling injuries in manufacturing to 184,000 for the first 3 months of 1944 and the total of lost time for the period to 3,680,000 man-days. These totals are only slightly lower than the estimates of 188,000 disabling injuries and 3,760,000 man-days lost in the first quarter of 1943.

In terms of exposure, however, the 1944 record represents an improvement of approximately 6.5 percent in the all-manufacturing injury-frequency rate. In 1944 the cumulative frequency rate for the first quarter was 18.7 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked, as compared with a rate of 20.0 for the corresponding period of 1943. It is pertinent to note, nevertheless, that the rates for the individual months of 1944 have been rising. In January the all-manufacturing rate was 18.0; in February it was 18.9; and in March it was 19.3.

The March estimates are based upon reports from 11,820 manufacturing plants. These reports listed a total of 25,649 disabling injuries. The reporting plants employed 6,433,000 workers during March, or more than 39 percent of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' estimate of total manufacturing employment for the month. The estimate of time lost is based upon the conservative allowance of 20 days for each disabling injury. The frequency rates given are based upon the entire volume of reports and are not weighted.

At the end of March, 0.5 percent of the injuries reported during the month were known to have been fatal and 3.1 percent had definitely developed into permanent physical impairments. It is reasonably certain, however, that these proportions of serious cases will be increased when the final outcome of the injuries presumed to be only temporary at the end of March becomes known.

Despite the slight rise in the all-manufacturing injury-frequency rate from February to March, there were more decreases in the individual industry frequency rates than there were increases. Thirty-five industries had decreases of at least 1 full point in their March rates as compared with February. Twelve of these were significant decreases of 5 or more frequency-rate points. On the other hand, there were 31 increases of 1 or more points, of which 11 were increases of 5 or more points. For 30 industries the March averages represented the lowest monthly rates for the quarter, but for 28 industries the March rates were the highest thus far recorded in 1944. The lowest industry average for March was that of plants manufacturing

explosives, which had only 2.0 disabling injuries for each million employee-hours worked during the month. The highest March average was 65.5 for the plate-fabrication and boiler-shop-products group.

Because of the longer period covered, the cumulative frequency rates presented in the accompanying table offer a more stable basis of comparison between industries than do the rates for a single month. Five industries—wooden containers, sawmills, plate fabrication and boiler-shop products, foundries (iron and steel), and planing mills—had cumulative averages of over 40 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked. In contrast, 10 industries had cumulative rates of less than 10 for the first quarter, as follows: Explosives, 3.8; women's clothing, 5.6; rayon and allied products (chemical), 6.0; sighting and fire-control equipment, 7.3; soap and glycerin, 8.4; radios and phonographs, 8.6; aircraft, 8.9; petroleum refining, 9.1; cement, 9.3; and iron and steel, 9.5.

Among the 59 industries for which 12-month average frequency rates for 1943 were available, 14 had rates for the first quarter of 1944 that were 1 or more points higher than their 1943 averages. On the other hand, 30 industries had first-quarter averages which were at least 1 point lower than their 1943 averages. Fifteen of the 3-month industry averages for 1944 were within 1 point of the corresponding 12-month averages for 1943.

*Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates¹ for Selected Manufacturing Industries, March 1944
With Cumulative Rates for 1944*

Industry ²	March 1944		Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate ³	1944: January-March cumulative ⁴	1943: 12-month cumulative ⁴
Agricultural machinery and tractors.....	46	20.7	21.2	18.9
Aircraft.....	50	10.0	8.9	8.7
Aircraft parts.....	254	12.2	12.6	14.6
Ammunition, 20 m. m. and over.....	294	23.7	21.5	24.8
Ammunition, small arms.....	10	12.0	12.1	16.0
Book and job.....	38	10.6	13.4	(9)
Boots and shoes, other than rubber.....	277	17.9	16.2	14.0
Canning and preserving.....	57	21.4	22.3	19.4
Cement.....	89	9.7	9.3	8.7
Chemical products, not elsewhere classified.....	81	18.9	16.0	(9)
Chemicals, industrial.....	337	16.7	17.0	18.3
Clothing, men's.....	526	11.3	11.9	8.3
Clothing, women's.....	378	4.6	5.6	5.4
Commercial and household machines.....	49	13.4	16.2	(9)
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products.....	127	33.4	31.7	(9)
Confectionery.....	9	18.3	16.0	(9)
Construction and mining machinery.....	89	26.0	27.1	31.8
Cotton goods.....	174	14.4	14.8	16.0
Cutlery and edge tools.....	30	27.3	26.9	24.1
Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides.....	62	20.8	23.1	22.3
Dyeing and finishing.....	82	21.2	23.3	(9)
Electrical equipment and supplies.....	528	11.6	10.9	11.1
Engines and turbines.....	56	12.5	12.9	18.3
Explosives.....	74	2.0	3.8	11.9
Fabricated structural steel.....	18	40.9	33.1	32.0
Flour, feed, and grain mill products.....	8	16.2	24.7	(9)
Food products, not elsewhere classified.....	35	32.8	22.4	(9)
Forgings, iron and steel.....	147	36.0	33.8	30.9
Foundries, iron and steel.....	559	43.5	43.2	42.1
Furniture, except metal.....	72	35.2	30.1	26.3
General industrial machinery.....	628	23.3	22.8	24.3
Glass.....	36	25.6	19.2	17.9

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial Accidents

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Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates¹ for Selected Manufacturing Industries, March 1944
With Cumulative Rates for 1944—Continued

Industry ¹	March 1944		Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate ²	1944: January-March cumulative ³	1943: 12-month cumulative ⁴
Guns and related equipment.....	124	17.2	19.0	17.6
Hardware.....	32	10.6	19.4	24.3
Heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	56	30.3	34.2	34.2
Iron and steel.....	183	9.9	9.5	9.8
Iron and steel products, not elsewhere classified.....	313	25.6	25.1	(9)
Knit goods.....	80	9.0	10.1	(9)
Leather.....	25	26.2	25.6	(9)
Leather products, not elsewhere classified.....	34	16.0	24.0	(9)
Machine shops, general.....	196	41.8	31.5	26.2
Metalworking machinery.....	660	18.3	16.9	18.9
Miscellaneous lumber products, not elsewhere classified.....	43	37.2	39.0	(9)
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	361	15.1	17.3	(9)
Motor vehicles.....	111	14.0	11.3	12.4
Motor-vehicle parts.....	61	24.2	23.8	25.5
Nonferrous-metal products.....	590	24.9	24.3	23.7
Ordnance and accessories, not elsewhere classified.....	21	20.5	18.4	(9)
Paints and varnishes.....	75	19.9	19.2	20.2
Paper.....	199	21.8	27.5	31.7
Paper boxes and containers.....	438	24.0	24.4	26.7
Paper products, not elsewhere classified.....	18	23.9	17.4	(9)
Paper and pulp (integrated).....	78	25.0	26.1	26.4
Petroleum refining.....	29	8.1	9.1	(9)
Planing mills.....	36	57.2	41.5	63.8
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products.....	91	65.5	53.3	44.0
Plumbers' supplies.....	17	14.9	13.1	18.2
Pottery.....	37	14.1	16.9	(9)
Pulp.....	22	35.3	31.8	(9)
Radio and phonographs.....	195	8.5	8.6	7.6
Railroad equipment.....	41	19.7	18.9	20.5
Rayon and allied products (chemical).....	23	5.8	6.0	7.8
Rubber boots and shoes.....	12	27.6	24.5	(9)
Rubber and rubber products, not elsewhere classified.....	89	17.8	19.3	(9)
Rubber tires.....	33	17.2	13.4	13.7
Sawmills.....	35	60.0	54.4	62.4
Screws and screw-machine products.....	50	26.9	27.8	(9)
Shipbuilding.....	260	25.3	24.6	28.7
Sighting and fire-control equipment.....	34	11.1	7.3	6.6
Silk and rayon products, not elsewhere classified.....	49	15.5	15.6	(9)
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	147	20.3	30.6	35.7
Small arms.....	60	10.5	11.7	11.5
Smelting and refining (nonferrous).....	167	21.9	23.1	28.5
Soap and glycerin.....	9	8.2	8.4	8.5
Special industry machinery.....	78	21.2	19.3	22.7
Stamped and pressed metal products.....	237	30.0	29.3	31.1
Steam fittings and apparatus.....	47	28.9	22.3	33.6
Stone, clay, and glass products, not elsewhere classified.....	88	14.5	12.2	(9)
Tanks, military.....	18	12.8	10.9	12.6
Tank parts, military.....	62	24.3	26.8	18.3
Textile machinery.....	7	46.5	34.6	(9)
Textile and textile-mill products, not elsewhere classified.....	172	14.4	16.9	(9)
Tin cans and other tinware.....	23	21.5	18.9	18.3
Tools, except edge tools.....	62	24.8	27.5	25.5
Wire and wire products.....	146	19.4	20.7	21.7
Wooden containers.....	50	48.3	54.9	(9)
Woolen goods.....	166	18.9	18.7	(9)

¹ The frequency rate represents the average number of disabling industrial injuries for each million employee-hours worked.

² A few industries have been omitted from this table because the coverage for the month did not amount to 1,000,000 or more employee-hours worked.

³ Computed from all reports received for the month; not based on identical plants in successive months.

⁴ Computed from all reports received for the month; not based on identical plants in successive months.

Preliminary rates for year subject to revision on basis of more comprehensive annual survey.

⁵ Not available.

Post-War Reconstruction

Administration of Post-War Plans in Canada

CANADA began planning for reconstruction as early as December 1939, with the establishment by order (P. C. 4068½) of a special Cabinet committee on demobilization problems. In 1941, a separate committee on the broader aspects of reconstruction grew out of the original committee. This Advisory Committee on Reconstruction in September 1943 submitted a report to the Privy Council, based on special studies made and on memoranda submitted by organized labor, employers, and other groups. Responsibility for reconstruction planning was then transferred to the Advisory Committee on Economic Policy, an established body which previously had dealt merely with wartime activities.

In the post-war period, Canada will deal with new problems resulting from the changed relationship between agriculture and industry. Before the war, the chief occupation was agriculture and, although the depression was felt by Canadian enterprise, business cycles did not affect the country to the same degree as in more industrialized nations. The war has changed this situation and indications are that Canada will not return to the position held in 1939. Plans are being started now to cope with the post-war problems which will result from increased industrial capacity: the increased number of skilled workers from the armed forces and war industries, the accumulated demand for goods and services, and the large amount of savings and investments available to pay for these goods and services.

As a result of the studies of post-war problems, a few concrete steps have been taken. The Governor-General, in his address at the opening of Parliament on January 27, 1944, stated that plans were being made for the establishment of departments of reconstruction, veterans' affairs, and social welfare. The last two departments would divide the functions of the Department of Pensions and National Health and take its place. Bills for the creation of departments of reconstruction and veterans' affairs were introduced in the House of Commons and had their first reading on April 17, 1944. The Prime Minister stated at that time that no action would be taken on a department of social welfare; its establishment would be postponed until the report of the special committee on social security was available.

Agreement is general that a department of reconstruction is necessary. Discussion has taken place as to whether the department's functions should be merely those of coordination or whether administrative duties should be included. Apparently the consensus favors a nonadministrative agency. As provided in the bill now under consideration, the department would coordinate the post-war activities of the other Government agencies. The various departments already in existence would make the plans and see that they are carried out.

The debate on the introduction of the bill indicated that the reconstruction minister would institute inquiries; require information; consult with representatives of producers, industry, science, and labor; establish committees; and inaugurate conferences. In short, the department of reconstruction would see that no activities overlap, that no problems are left out, and that the programs result in an integrated whole.

Under the proposed legislation, the department of veterans' affairs would deal with veterans' pensions, demobilization, medical care, vocational guidance and training, the rehabilitation of veterans into civil life, the War Veterans' Allowance Act, allowances to nonpensioned widows, and, in sum, "all matters not by law assigned to any other department relating to the care, treatment, training, or reestablishment of members and former members of the armed forces." The department would also take over any other measures referred to it from time to time and having to do with the welfare of members of the armed forces.



British Plans for the Immediate Post-War Period¹

THE British Prime Minister has stated that he regards as a definite responsibility of the National Government the making of practical plans to insure that food, work, and homes will be available to all in the years immediately after the end of the present war. Outlines of the Government's intentions in the early demobilization period are becoming clearer, and some major plans either have been announced or are under consideration. A Minister of Reconstruction has been appointed, who has estimated that about 10,000,000 persons will move occupationally in the immediate post-war period, and approximately half of these in a relatively short time. In determining the important question of priorities in the demobilization of the armed forces, age and length of service are expected to be taken into account. The right to reinstatement in civilian employment is protected by law. Training facilities are being extended and the general educational requirements within the country are to be raised when peace is restored. Plans for construction of prefabricated and other dwelling units are advancing. Activities in the above fields are described below. The present summary does not deal with Government plans for securing major supplies of food which, however, have been made. Means of insuring full employment were discussed in the February 1944 issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

Government Administrative Machinery

To facilitate the shift from war to peace, central machinery for coordinated study of, and action on, reconstruction was first established in January 1941. Following several changes in officials having

¹ Data are from Great Britain, Parliament, House of Lords Debates, December 8 and 10, 1943; House of Commons Debates, December 8, 1943, and February 4 and 15, March 1, 8, and 15, and April 6, 1944; Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), November and December 1943 and January and March 1944; British Information Services, British Government Machinery for Reconstruction (1D492), January 1944, Labor and Industry in Britain (Vol. II, No. 3), March 1944, and press releases Nos. L-129, L-130, L-134, and L-136; United States Embassy (London), reports by W. J. Gallman, first secretary, 1943, No. 12788, and from E. M. Hodgkinson, commercial attaché's section, 1943, No. 500, and 1944, Nos. 30 and 106; Scottish Trades Union Congress, Glasgow, Address by the Right Hon. Ernest Bevin, Minister of Labor and National Service, to the 46th annual Scottish Trades Union Congress at Aberdeen on April 30, 1943; Labor Party, Labor Party Bulletin, London (Vol. III, No. 5), March 1944; Planning (Political and Economic Planning, London), February 4, 1944 (No. 217).

responsibility for dealing with reconstruction matters, a Minister of Reconstruction, who is a member of the War Cabinet, was appointed on November 11, 1943. According to the first announcement made by this official, it is his duty "to see the reconstruction plan as a whole, to lay out the various parts which have to be worked out by the departments, to bring the plans * * * in relation with one another * * * in a word to see that the whole range of preparations is brought into one single coherent whole and that work on these plans proceeds apace." In carrying out his functions, he will be assisted by the Minister without Portfolio, who dealt with post-war planning before the appointment of the Minister of Reconstruction. A small expert Department-Reconstruction Secretariat is associated with the Ministers. Two official committees—for external and internal matters, respectively—assist the ministerial committee.

The Minister of Reconstruction cooperates closely with Government departments, which retain their jurisdiction over public programs in their respective fields. For example, the Ministry of Health continues to have responsibility for approving housing schemes prepared by local authorities. That Ministry will carry out a substantial part of the housing program, establishing policy and taking full advantage of the advice and assistance of the Ministries of Works, Town and Country Planning, and Agriculture. Physical reconstruction is primarily within the jurisdiction of the Minister of Town and Country Planning. Research and technical facilities of the Ministry of Works have been greatly expanded, to experiment with design, specifications, materials, and building methods. Responsibility for putting workers back into industry will be that of the Minister of Labor and National Service just as he has been the authority for moving labor during the war. In addition to functions in the field of housing, the Ministry of Health plans for health and related matters, and such bodies as the Boards of Education and Trade deal with reconstruction problems coming within their respective fields.

Demobilization Measures and Problems

If the war in Europe ends considerably in advance of that in the Pacific, the problems incident to demobilization of members of the armed forces and reconversion of industry to peacetime production will be more gradual than is likely if hostilities in both regions close within a relatively short time. Under any conditions, however, a heavy strain will be placed on British economic life in returning 10,000,000 persons to civilian pursuits. Public authorities are therefore greatly concerned with insuring demobilization on an equitable basis, keeping hardships at a minimum, and providing financial and other aids in the period of transition.

PLANS FOR DEMOBILIZATION OF SERVICEMEN

As in the United States, numerous schemes have been proposed to govern the order of release for servicemen. Certain groups are of the opinion that it is preferable to retain soldiers in the Army rather than to have them unemployed after mustering out. However, the Government view, expressed by the Joint Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Labor, is that operational requirements are to deter-

mine the rate of demobilization rather than the availability of civilian employment. On first thought, he stated, the idea of attempting to regulate discharge according to the condition of the labor market might seem attractive, but the effect on individuals and the morale of service personnel would be serious. He added: "We have really no right whatever to keep in the Forces anyone for whom there is no military requirement."

Military considerations are bound to influence the order in which persons are released from the armed services, but information is not available showing the general principles, if any, which it is proposed to observe in that respect.

From the nonmilitary standpoint, the main factors determining the order of discharge are the needs of industry, length of service, age, marital status, and length of service abroad. In this connection the Joint Parliamentary Secretary stated: "I suggest that the Government plan of age and length of service is the best framework * * * there could be no charge of injustice * * * these are factors which can easily be calculated and checked by the commanding officers in the field * * * and [the Government] do not promise more than can be carried out in practice." The Minister without Portfolio has expressed the opinion that latitude is necessary, permitting some men to come out before their normal turn. The Joint Parliamentary Secretary has also mentioned a scheme to permit the withdrawal of key men from the forces where it is shown to be essential—this principle has been followed even in wartime. The latest statement on the subject was made in a radio address delivered on March 26, 1944, by the Prime Minister, in which he said that the Minister of Labor and National Service has worked out a satisfactory system of priorities for demobilization, which for obvious reasons could not be divulged at present.²

Rights of certain persons in the service of the Crown, or in the civil defense force, to reinstatement in their civilian employment after demobilization have been safeguarded under the terms of the Reinstatement in Civil Employment Act of March 21, 1944, which amends and replaces earlier wartime enactments on the same subject. A person wishing reinstatement with his former employer must apply not later than the fifth Monday following the end of his war service and notify the employer of a date, not later than the ninth Monday after completion of war service, when he will be available for employment. Both dates may be postponed for reasonable cause, such as sickness. An obligation is placed on the employer to reinstate the applicant at the first opportunity (if any) on which it is reasonable and practical to do so, on terms and conditions as favorable as the employee would have had if he had not joined the armed forces. The employee must be retained for a minimum of 26 weeks or for as much of that period as is reasonable or practicable.

POST-WAR CONTROLS

Retention of some of the wartime controls over manpower, consumption, and production during the post-war period of adjustments is foreshadowed in official statements.

² For a short description of plan followed in demobilization of British Army after first World War, see *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1944 (pp. 505 and 506).

In the introduction of emergency manpower controls the Minister of Labor has frequently noted that certain features such as guaranteed employment and wages under the essential-work orders might be retained with profit at the close of hostilities. He has also stressed that the restoration of pre-war trade practices in their entirety—as provided for by special legislation³—may not be desirable. No statement has been made as to the speed with which wartime compulsions on labor will be abandoned. At least one additional measure is slated for introduction after the war. The Minister of Labor announced on July 16, 1942, that it would be the Government's policy to establish minimum-wage regulation for all forms of employment. He added that he was engaged in formulating proposals for this purpose but was not yet in a position to make a statement. The importance the Minister attaches to fixing minimum standards was shown in 1943 when he successfully steered through Parliament the Catering Wages Act, described by him as the first reconstruction measure. Under its terms a newly constituted Catering Wages Commission is to examine the machinery for regulating wages and conditions of employment, to report on their adequacy, recommend improvements to Government departments, and make "wages-board recommendations" to the Minister of Labor.

The Minister of Reconstruction stated early in 1944 that, in view of the shortage of raw materials that will exist, detailed plans are being worked out in consultation between industry and the Government to determine availability. The Minister did not want to specify a precise method but thought some control over scarce raw materials would be necessary. He also foresaw some form of control over consumption during the transitional period, as there would not be enough goods to satisfy demand. It seems clear that consumption control will also take into account the prevention of undue price rises.

UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE TRANSITIONAL PERIOD

The British Government expects some unemployment during the movement of labor back into civil employment. Aid to those displaced will be provided through the unemployment-insurance funds which have been heavily increased during the war; unemployment-assistance regulations were modified in certain respects late in 1943. Allowances to men and women discharged from the services are also being planned to cushion the return to civilian life. In addition, local unemployment may be eased by facilitating the change from war to peace production for the areas least favorably situated as regards employment opportunity. The terms of rental or sale of Government factories can be used as a powerful influence in determining the future location of industry. According to an official announcement, the Government in rebuilding industry will favor areas which had heavy pre-war unemployment. On December 8, 1943, the President of the Board of Trade announced that, after consultation with the Ministers of Labor and Production and with others, he was in favor of making inducements toward greater employment in sections where such aid was needed. Such inducements might include stopping war contracts earlier there than elsewhere, turning back plants and equipment to

³ Restoration of Pre-War Trade Practices Act, 1942. (See Monthly Labor Review, June 1942, p. 123.)

private industry, and adapting some Government establishments to use as "trading estates" (self-sufficient communities with their own industry).

Rehabilitation and Training

SPECIAL TRAINING PROVISIONS

Rehabilitation and training of the war disabled has already begun. Ex-servicemen receive instruction at the same training centers and technical colleges as civilians. Some training is also furnished in specially designated industrial and residential establishments. Existence of a specially provided center was announced by the Ministry of Labor late in 1943, where men are assisted in fitting themselves for employment, immediately after release from hospitals. Men between the ages of 18 and 50 years undergo a training period of 6 to 8 weeks, during which they receive free board and lodging and an allowance ranging from 9 to 24s. weekly, depending on age. An extra 10s. a week is allowed for the trainee's wife and 4s. for each dependent child under 16 years of age. If a man maintains a home during his residence in the center he is paid an additional 23s. weekly.

Earlier in 1943, the Minister of Labor, the President of the Board of Education, the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries, and the Secretary of State for Scotland agreed on a scheme to provide further education and training for young men and women who would normally have taken courses fitting them for a business or professional career. The plan is to come into full operation after the war and has for its purpose the provision of an adequate supply of men and women to fill higher positions in industry, agriculture, commerce, and the professions.

As a part of the resettlement scheme and to supply skilled workers to industry in the post-war period, the joint parliamentary secretary to the Ministry of Labor informed the House of Commons on April 6, 1944, industrial training will be furnished to men and women released from war service. The training will be offered to those in need of a course to enable them to obtain employment of a kind that is likely to lead to permanent resettlement. The capacity of the individual and the probable needs of industry are to be taken into account in furnishing the training opportunity, for the scheme is to be continued until demobilization is complete. If facilities are insufficient to train all eligibles without delay, men and women who have served in the armed services and the merchant marine are to have priority over others, such as police auxiliaries and the civil nursing reserve. In general, eligibility will depend on (1) the persons' having given full-time service in work of national importance during the war; (2) such service having interfered with either the beginning or completion of training or with pursuance of an occupation; and (3) the need of such training to enable the person to obtain employment of a satisfactory kind, taking into account his general capacity. Training is to be given in Government training centers directly administered by the Ministry of Labor, in technical colleges or other educational institutions, or in employers' establishments. Adequate allowances are to be provided during the training period. The Departments of Agriculture in England and Wales and in Scotland are to provide training in agricultural occupations. A separate scheme for

training building construction labor is forecast in the White Paper (Cmd 6428, published in 1943) entitled "Training for the Building Industry."

Persons disabled from the war or other cause are entitled to training to fit them for employment or work on their own account under the terms of the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, of March 1, 1944. Provision is made for vocational training and industrial rehabilitation, registration of the disabled, imposition upon employers of not less than 20 persons (or such smaller number as may be specified by order) of the obligation to engage a quota of registrants, the allocation of vacancies in certain employments for such registrants, and assistance to seriously disabled persons in obtaining employment or work on their own account, under special conditions. Vocational training and industrial rehabilitation are to be given to persons 16 years of age and over by means of courses arranged by the Minister of Labor and National Service. Payments may be made to trainees. The Minister is required to maintain the register of persons whose disability is likely to continue for 6 months or more. In selecting persons for vocational training and industrial rehabilitation courses and when selecting registered persons for possible placement, preference is to be given to those who have served full time in the armed forces, the merchant navy or the merchant marine, and the women's services.

GENERAL EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS

Supplementing the extension of vocational training under the measures described, plans are being made for a significant broadening of general education. A White Paper on educational reconstruction, issued in July 1943, formed the basis for the education bill. Under the terms of this bill, the school-leaving age is to be raised (effective April 1, 1945) to 15 years, with the provision that the 14-year age limit may, under certain circumstances, be retained for 2 years following the effective date. The age limit for compulsory school attendance may be further increased to 16 years by order in council, as soon as the President of the Board of Education deems practicable. Local education authorities are to establish and maintain approved centers for young persons who are not in full-time attendance at any school or other educational institution, to provide them with such further education as may develop their aptitudes and prepare them for citizenship. Part-time education is to be furnished in these "young people's colleges," as the centers are to be called, during working hours, to young persons up to 18 years of age. A young person who is undergoing full-time education may be exempted. Otherwise, attendance is required for 1 whole day or 2 half days for 44 weeks in each year, or for a continuous period of 8 weeks or two periods of 4 weeks in each year.

Provision of Housing

Among the plans for the immediate post-war period, those for housing are probably the most advanced. On February 8, 1944, the Minister of Works outlined a program to cover two periods—the first 2 years (the "interregnum" period) after the war, and the following 10 years. The limit of expenditure on war-damaged houses is to be raised

to £500 per house. Housing sites for new buildings are to be prepared with respect to roads, sewers, gas, etc., in the late spring and summer of 1944, by local authorities who are to have the use of plant and machinery as this equipment is released from construction of airfields.

On March 8, 1944, the Minister of Health made a statement on the Government's housing policy for the first 2 years after the end of the war in Europe. To meet with sufficient speed the urgent needs for dwellings in this period, permanent building must be supplemented by a substantial amount of emergency construction, including adaptation of existing buildings for use and the provision of temporary accommodation. In order to assist local authorities in making the earliest possible start toward erecting permanent dwellings, the Government has decided to introduce temporary legislation extending the existing scope of housing subsidies to cover dwellings built for general needs. In the opinion of the Minister, local authorities must be enabled to provide for the general housing needs in the same way that they cleared slums and relieved overcrowding before the war.⁴

Local authorities are to be empowered to buy in advance land required for housing, using compulsion if necessary. Parliament will be asked to authorize the responsible Ministers to approve compulsory orders for the purchase of land for housing purposes without holding an inquiry (as was done after the last war).⁵ Local authorities are to proceed on the assumption that 100,000 houses of a permanent type can be completed or put under construction in the first year after the end of hostilities in Europe, and another 200,000 units in the succeeding year. The totals cited are for England, Scotland, and Wales, and are exclusive of housing of a temporary character. Plans for long-term building are foreshadowed in a White Paper proposal that the Minister of Labor and the Minister of Works undertake to bring the personnel of the building industry to a total of 1½ million men, making possible the erection of 3 to 4 million houses in from 10 to 12 years.

The Minister of Health stated that, as of March 15, the number of men in the building industry was approximately 40 percent of the pre-war total, and that the average age of the men was considerably above the peacetime age level. The current labor force, however, was distributed and organized with a view to war needs and not to social needs. Building for war production and to meet the essential requirements of civilian life, he stated, had made house construction practically impossible. Available building labor had been concentrated on essential housing, repair of war damage, other essential repairs, adapting requisitioned houses for occupancy, and completing some unfinished houses.

By the spring of 1944, experimental work was under way to ascertain the most suitable types of post-war housing units, and numbers of demonstration houses of permanent construction were being built to demonstrate the use of different materials and methods and comparative costs. The Minister of Works was converting an industrial hostel into temporary houses, to show the possibilities of buildings of this kind after the war. Hostels might ultimately accommodate some 24,000 families. Large houses were being divided into flats, to

⁴Pre-war legislation limited housing subsidy to slum clearance, abatement of overcrowding, and the housing of certain classes of agricultural workers.

⁵The Minister contemplated that the necessary legislation might be introduced shortly after the Easter recess of Parliament.

supply additional dwelling units. Particular attention was being directed toward the possible use of temporary prefabricated houses; any houses of this type erected after the war are to be in addition to—and not substituted for—the permanent structures.

Proposed Long-Term Programs

A number of the programs under consideration in Great Britain for long-term improvement in the national life are here referred to briefly, as they have a close bearing on preparations that are under way for the demobilization period. Following British custom, study has been made of the problems involved in establishing controls and broadening social services, and the findings have been published for the information of the public and for future use by legislators. The reports referred to are, in particular, that of the Beveridge Committee on social services; the Government White Paper outlining a national health scheme; the White Paper on the building industry; the Scott report on the use of agricultural land; the Barlow proposals for shifting the industrial population (referred to as "location of industry"); and the Uthwatt recommendations on land tenure and the acquisition of private land for development. Government proposals on means of attaining full employment were issued in a White Paper in May 1944.⁶ Previously, a great deal of attention had been given to this subject—which overshadows most others in importance—by employer, labor, and research groups.⁷

As a result of the Uthwatt and Scott Committee reports, the Ministry of Town and Country Planning was established in February 1942 and given the duty of taking further action respecting the recommendations in these reports. According to the Minister without Portfolio, the Government had already accepted the principle of a simpler and speedier method of acquiring land for reconstruction and had accepted the 1939 ceiling as the basis of value. A bill on this subject was promised. Intentions had not been announced regarding the other major proposals, as the Government took the view that it was wiser to move cautiously than to make unwise decisions, and that the needs of different segments of the economy must be weighed in relation to those of others. For example, establishment of a labor force of 1,250,000 building-construction workers, envisaged in the White Paper on the building industry, would depend upon the labor requirements of other pursuits as well as upon the amount of national savings and materials that could properly be allocated to dwelling and other construction.

⁶ This report will be summarized in a future issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

⁷ These reports were summarized in the Monthly Labor Review, as follows: Barlow report, May 1940 (p. 1124); Scott and Uthwatt reports, January 1943 (p. 46); Beveridge report, February 1943 (p. 272); and nongovernmental plans for full employment, February 1944 (p. 332).

Post-War Planning in Latin America¹

BEFORE the outbreak of war in 1939, most of the Latin American nations had formulated programs for the development of natural resources, the improvement of living conditions, the promotion of industrialization, and for agrarian and other reform. After the war began, these countries undertook war activities which consisted largely of productive and other operations designed to meet the military needs of the United Nations. As soon as the pressures of war are lifted, these countries will consequently face not only the old problems but also new questions involving the adjustment of production, transportation, and foreign trade to peacetime conditions. Many of the nations have already appointed committees to study such post-war problems.

International action for the solution of post-war problems has also been taken. Latin Americans took part in the meeting of the International Education Assembly held in Frederick, Md., in June 1944. Representatives were present from 11 countries (Brazil, Chile, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay). All the Latin American nations except Argentina participated in the first meetings of the United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture and the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, and a number of them accepted membership on committees established by these two organizations. The meetings of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, which were instituted to determine a common policy toward the war, also provided for committees on war and post-war problems. Among the more important were the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense, the Inter-American Defense Board, and the Inter-American Juridical Committee and the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee which were to formulate recommendations relative to the political and economic aspects of international organizations in the post-war era. The Executive Committee on Post-War Problems of the Pan American Union was requested to serve as an intermediary between the Financial and Economic Advisory Committee and the governments, and on December 15, 1943, a resolution was approved for sounding out the Governments regarding a date for an Inter-American Technical Economic Conference to be convened at the Pan American Union. No date had been set by the end of June 1944.

In New York City in May 1944, more than 60 business and commercial leaders attended a meeting of the Inter-American Development Commission which was the first conference to bring together the central commission and the individual development commissions of each of the 21 republics, including the United States.

The establishment and work of some of these Latin American committees are outlined in the accompanying table.

¹ Data are from Executive Committee on Post-War Problems of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, Recent Trends in Inter-American Economic Cooperation (Washington, 1943); Inter-American Juridical Committee, Preliminary Recommendations on Post-War Problems (Washington, 1942); Post-War Plans of the United Nations, by Lewis L. Lorwin (New York, 1943); Some Latin American Views on Post-War Reconstruction, by Samuel Guy Inman, Foreign Policy Reports, (New York), March 15, 1944; Bulletin of the Pan American Union (Washington), issues of August 1943, February and March 1944; Anglo-American Caribbean Commission report for the years 1942-1943 (Washington, 1943); International Labor Review, International Labor Office (Montreal), issues of November 1942, October 1943, January, and April-May 1944; Revista de Economía Argentina (Buenos Aires), May 1943; El Cronista Comercial (Buenos Aires), August 13, 1943; La Prensa (Buenos Aires), February 24, 1944; Mexico News (Mexico, D. F.), March 15, 1944; Gaceta Oficial (Venezuela), October 5, 1943; The Inter-American (Washington), May 1944; Foreign Commerce Weekly (Washington), issues of July 10 and August 7, 1943; Nelson Rockefeller, in New York Times Magazine, May 14, 1944; and Reports from Press Division of Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs.

Membership and Activities of Post-War Planning Bodies in Latin American Countries

Country and committee	When appointed	Membership	Subjects assigned	Action taken
Argentina: Committee of Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Permanent Congress for Study of Post-War Problems.	April 1943.....	Representatives of production, industry, and commerce.	Post-war problems.....	Second meeting in August 1943.
Bolivia: Inter-American Development Commission.	1941; Sept. 1, 1943.	Government-appointed experts.....	Efficient use of national resources in solving post-war problems.	
Brazil: National Council of Industrial and Commercial Policy.	Nov. 10, 1943.		Adaptation of war economy to peace; development of industry and commerce.	First meeting (Mar. 10, 1944) assigned following subjects for study and report: Effects of war on agriculture, industry, and commerce; transportation, production, and distribution; improvement of technical training laboratories and institutes; protection of national industries and foreign trade; measures for post-war development.
Chile: National Committee..... Post-War Agricultural Commission.	Aug. 13, 1943.....do.....	Minister of Foreign Affairs (chairman) Minister of Economic Affairs and Commerce (chairman of subcommittee). Minister of Agriculture (chairman) and committee of six.	National and international aspects of post-war problems. Agricultural post-war problems, specific recommendations.	Its report advised immediate diversification by development of agriculture and manufacturing, and an agriculture capable of supplying the nation and providing surplus for export.
Colombia: National Commission for Economic Studies.	Apr. 1, 1942.....	Ministers of War, Finance, National Economy, and Public Works, National Superintendent of Imports, Manager of National Association of Coffee Growers, and other officials and experts.	Consideration of present and post-war economic problems and their social aspects.	
Institute for Land Credit.....			Study of rural housing and other improvements.	
Cuba: National Commission.....	May 26, 1943.	Prime Minister (chairman), Cabinet members, President of National Development Commission, and others.	Primary causes of present world disorder and measures necessary at end of war; recommendations of Pan American Union, other official organizations, and other plans submitted.	

Dominican Republic: National Committee for Study of Post-War Problems.	Nov. 30, 1943	Secretary of State for External Affairs (chairman), Secretaries of State of various departments, representatives of different branches of economy.	Political, legal, and social questions; economic and financial matters; agriculture.
Ecuador: National Committee for Study of Post-War Problems.	Dec. 16, 1943	Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Finance, and Social Welfare, and former ministers, a representative of the Supreme Court, a representative of the Central University, a representative of the Central Bank, and the National Welfare Institute, and others.	Political, legal, and social problems; economic and financial problems.
Haiti: National Committee		Minister of Foreign Affairs, president; Minister of Finance, and others.	Political, juridical, and social problems; economic and financial problems.
Honduras: (Name not known)	Feb. 22, 1944	Minister of the Treasury, chairman.	
Mexico: National Commission	Feb. 15, 1944	Secretaries of Foreign Affairs, Treasury and Public Credit, National Economy, Agriculture and Development, Labor and Social Security, Communications, and Public Works, Public Education, 3 representatives of each House of Congress, and representatives of industry, labor, and the professions.	
Panama: Board for Study of National Problems.	Oct. 9, 1943	18 members in 6 committees	Economic, financial, sociological, educational, and international problems, and problems of health and building; formulation of concrete plans.
Peru: Institute for International Post-War Problems.	Mar. 15, 1943	Experts appointed by President, presided over by Minister of Foreign Affairs.	Centralization of information on post-war problems, and study of international plans.
Uruguay: Special Committee of Foreign Office.	May 31, 1943		Post-war problems.
Venezuela: Commission for Study of Post-War Problems.	Oct. 4, 1943	Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Treasury, War and Navy, Industrial Development, Health and Public Welfare, Agriculture, Labor and Communications, Presidents of Central Bank of Venezuela, of Import Control Commission, and of Technical Institute of Immigration and Colonization.	Plans for solution of post-war problems in agriculture, immigration, industry, foreign trade, transportation, fiscal and banking policy, labor and social policy.

Program of work adopted at a meeting of Dec. 13, 1943, and 6 subcommittees appointed to deal with problems of immigration and land settlement, international trade, industrialization, international monetary problems, social problems, and petroleum in its international aspects.

Conference on Post-War Program for West Indies

AT THE West Indian Conference held at Barbados in March 1944, under the auspices of the Anglo-American Caribbean Commission, the recommendations of the several committees were approved unanimously, and recognition was expressed of the value of continued cooperation between the United States and Great Britain in dealing with problems in the Caribbean.¹ Items on the agenda included the following: Means of raising the nutritional level; reabsorption into civil life of persons engaged in war employment; planning public works for the improvement of agriculture, education, housing, and public health; health protection and quarantine; industrial development; and possibilities of expanding the Caribbean Research Council.

Among the recommendations for raising the nutritional level, it was suggested that land should be provided for small settlers, on terms that would promote efficiency and security, and that food products necessary for health should be made accessible to all economic levels of the population through a proper adjustment between purchasing power and the cost of food. Education to help people of all economic levels to acquire healthful food habits was advocated. Although the proposals were based on long-term planning, the committee considered that the Caribbean territories during the war should achieve the maximum degree of self-sufficiency in food. European countries will need large quantities of food after hostilities end, and therefore the fewer demands made by the Caribbean the greater will be this region's contribution to the efforts of the United Nations. Another aspect of the food situation to which attention was directed in the report was the expansion of fisheries through research, freshwater fish culture, improved marketing methods, and better credit facilities for fishermen.

To reabsorb into civilian pursuits persons engaged in war employment, a program was proposed to stimulate and develop all staple industries, to encourage suitable secondary and minor industries (including handicrafts), to coordinate public-works construction when war contracts reach completion, and to establish or extend public employment agencies. In the opinion of the committee the employment situation should also be relieved by permitting enlisted personnel to remain in the armed forces for 6 months after demobilization, and by affording these men and women an opportunity during that period to obtain vocational training. Preference in employment for ex-servicemen and ex-servicewomen was endorsed.

As all the territories and colonies represented at the conference are in need of extensive public-works programs to improve agriculture, education, housing, and public health, the committee recommended that public-works programs should be initiated during hostilities, provided that they do not interfere with the prosecution of the war. Each territory or island group was urged to draw up a long-term development plan and to enact model legislation. In planning public works, the report states, it should be recognized that town and country are interdependent and therefore should be treated as related elements of what may be called a "regional unit." Establishment of regional boards was recommended.

¹ Information is from Report of the West Indian Conference held in Barbados, March 21-30, 1944, under the auspices of the Anglo-American Caribbean Commission. Washington, 1944.

Industrial development is desirable to increase the production of wealth and to decrease unemployment, to diversify the economy, and to provide a wider range of occupations for the working populations. To establish new industries the committee proposed that special assistance should be given for a limited period in the form of tariff protection and safeguards against the dumping of goods. State aid to new industries should be in the form of providing research, permitting free entry of machinery, granting some tax relief, providing vocational and technical training to increase the supply of skilled workers, and improving road, river, and other transport facilities. The governments might even provide capital for new industries, if desirable, and if private investment is not forthcoming. Encouragement of home industries was recommended for work of artistic merit. As it is desirable that the various Caribbean territories should know each other's plans for industrial development, the committee advocated that information should be cleared through the industries section of the Caribbean Research Council.

In the report on the possibilities for expanding the Council, proposals were made for the establishment of new branches and increased collaboration among research institutions. The recommendations emphasized that the Council should have freedom of action, that implementation of its findings should depend on enlightened opinion, and that consideration should be given by the Council to related work of other agencies.

The following countries were represented at the conference: Bahamas, Barbados, British Guiana, British Honduras, Jamaica, Leeward Islands, Puerto Rico, Trinidad, Virgin Islands, and Windward Islands.

Industrial Relations

Four-Year Wage Contract in British Coal Mining¹

REPRESENTATIVES of the Mining Association and the Mineworkers' Federation in Great Britain signed an agreement on April 20, 1944, whereby minimum wages in the coal-mining industry are established for a 4-year period. Negotiations of the agreement took place following the Porter award of January 1944, fixing a minimum weekly wage of £5 for underground workers and £4 10s. for surface labor. In authorizing these national minimum rates, the tribunal rejected the application of the mine workers for an increase in piece-work rates, declaring that its action was intended to meet a temporary situation only, and that an overhaul of the wage structure in the industry was long overdue. The Porter award created so-called "anomalies" in the wage structure, by removing the long-established differentials in pay among various classes of mine work. Dissatisfaction of labor with the anomalies and the desire of the Government to stabilize the industry, thereby allaying the fears of workers as to their future and insuring a steady flow of production, led to the establishment of the 4-year agreement, replacing the complicated system of making flat-rate additions to basic rates of pay by a consolidated payment under which there is a financial inducement to the worker to raise his individual output.

Wages Prior to the 1944 Agreement

Calculation of wages in the coal industry was an involved procedure, even before the present war, and became increasingly complex when the basic pay was raised and allowances were increased as wartime measures.

In 1939, the final settlement of wages was still made by district agreements rather than on a national scale. The mine wage consisted of a basic rate plus a percentage addition calculated on the proceeds of the industry in the appropriate district. For day workers the basic rate was a time rate and for piece workers a price list per ton or other unit established for the mine and seam in which the individual worked. The share of the proceeds of the industry to which labor was entitled (referred to as the "ascertainment") was determined by a quarterly audit of colliery profits, carried out by independent accountants acting for the owners and men jointly. Either 87 or 85 percent of the proceeds were apportioned to wages and the remaining 13 or 15 percent to profits. If, in any 3 months,

¹ Data are from Great Britain, Parliament, House of Commons, Debates, February 22, April 21 and 25, 1944; British Information Services, Labor and Industry in Britain, March and May 1944, and Rise; Planning (Political and Economic Planning, London), April 14, 1944; Economist (London), March 18 and April 23, 1944; British Labor Party Press, Labor Press Service, April 19, 1944; Labor Monthly: A Magazine of International Labor (London), April 1944; Labor Research (Labor Research Department, London), May 1944.

the prescribed minimum rates of pay more than absorbed the percentage of profits allocated to wages, the deficit was carried forward to succeeding quarters. Sometimes such a deficit accumulated over a long period and, being a prior charge on future profits, prevented wages from rising above the prescribed minimum. In certain districts the miners received not only extra money for working in water and in dust, but also free house coal and even free housing. Thus, pay inevitably varied between districts and workers.

Mine labor received several increases in pay after the present war started. A national flat-rate increase in basic wages was authorized under the Greene award of June 1942, amounting to 2s. 6d. per shift (13s. 9d. per 5½-shift week). This award also established a bonus system under which workers in each district were entitled to 3d. per shift for every 1 percent (but not to exceed 3s. 9d. for any 1 shift) by which output exceeded a stipulated standard based on production in a recent period of months.² A bonus of 1s. per shift, originally granted as an attendance bonus, later became an unconditional flat-rate addition to wages. Negotiations early in 1940 led to a cost-of-living allowance of 3½d. per shift for every 5-point increase in the official index number of living costs. Among the increases granted, the cost-of-living allowance was the largest, amounting to approximately 14s. 8½d. for a 5½-shift week in 1944.

National weekly minimum wages, which were fixed at £4 3s. for underground workers and £3 18s. for surface labor under the Greene award, were raised to £5 and £4 10s., respectively, by the Porter award already mentioned. Provision was made that, when the sum of the basic rate plus supplements was not equal to the appropriate minimum rate to which the worker was entitled, the difference would be made up from the "Coal charges account." This account is a central pool maintained by a special levy on output. In the spring of 1944, after the Porter award was made, the charge was 8s. per ton of output.

Wages Under the National Agreement, 1944

Cost-of-living bonuses were retained in the national agreement of 1944, for both time and piece workers. Existing ascertainment agreements were suspended for the duration of hostilities and in their place a percentage was added to the minimum basic pay. To the basic wage from these two sources combined were added all flat-rate increases in pay authorized beginning in 1936 (i. e., 1s. per shift in 1936, 1s. per shift as an attendance bonus, 2s. 6d. per shift under the Greene award). The total thus arrived at formed the consolidated wage of time workers. For piece workers the procedure was somewhat different, as it was necessary to calculate on the unit of product instead of time; this entailed computing the percentage that the flat rate bore to the district minimum plus the ascertainment, and adding the resultant percentage to all piece-work price lists. In this way all the earnings with the exception of the cost-of-living bonus were made dependent upon piece-work effort.

Certain "craftsmen," who were defined in a schedule to the agreement, were granted a special payment of 1s. per shift. If they were

² For a discussion of the district output-bonus scheme, see *Monthly Labor Review* for November 1942 (p. 943).

being paid at the Porter award minimum rate, they were entitled to this 1s. extra.

Although the district output scheme was discontinued, provision was made in the agreement that special consideration should be given to the wages in districts which consistently earned a bonus under that plan. Adjustments in piece rates were intended to furnish an incentive to raise production—an objective that the district output bonus was not very successful in accomplishing. The Government hoped that the financial concessions made to the skilled workers, in rectifying the wage anomalies of the Porter award, would be compensated by increased output and that, therefore, an added burden would not be placed on the consumer. However, the Government indicated that it might make funds available to meet some of the costs of correcting the anomalies. The Government also undertook to maintain a central financial pool patterned on the "Coal charges account" and to keep coal prices at a level that would guarantee a reasonable credit balance to the industry.

Objectives and Need of Agreement

By recognizing that skilled workers should receive wages in excess of those prescribed in the Porter award, by relating piece rates more closely to rising output, and by stabilizing wages for 4 years, it was hoped to raise total production and the individual worker's productivity, and also to provide stability and security of wage rates both in wartime and in the transition from war to peace. During the effective period of the agreement no national or district variation may be sought in existing rates of pay. Alterations are permissible in individual pits only if methods have changed. Men and management must endeavor to insure maximum output, efficiency, regularity of attendance, and speedy determination of disputes by national or district machinery. In commenting on the conclusion of the agreement, the president of the Mineworkers' Federation stated that the action marked the beginning of the end of insecurity in the industry.

Labor unrest and strikes that reduced coal production were special reasons necessitating the decisive step. During the 5 weeks ended April 1, 1944, the aggregate output of coal was 2,284,000 tons below that in the corresponding period of 1943. More than 1½ million tons of the reduction were caused by industrial disputes, mainly in the Yorkshire and the South Wales coal fields. Statistics cited in the House of Commons on February 22, 1944, showed that absenteeism likewise reduced coal output, the percentages of shifts lost being 6.1 for voluntary and 9 for involuntary absences as compared with 4.9 and 7.5, respectively, for all wage earners. Another compelling reason for raising wages was the comparatively low standard of pay in mining as compared with other industries before the war. Moreover, the rise in actual earnings of coal miners has probably not been greater than in other industries.

However, economic groups question whether the British industry can compete for coal markets after the war at the higher labor costs. Between July 1937 and July 1943, the average wage cost of a ton of coal (excluding allowances in kind) rose from 10s. 0.47d. to 20s. 7.31d. As the average proceeds per ton increased only from 16s. 2.82d. to 28s. 11.15d. during the same 6-year period, labor costs

rose from 62 to 71 percent of the total proceeds per ton. A higher rate of labor productivity would be of considerable help, and as already stated, the national agreement is looked to as a means of bringing about greater individual effort. Another possibility for raising productivity—and one that is being given increasing attention in the House of Commons—is mine mechanization. In the course of the debates on April 25, 1944, the Minister of Fuel and Power disclosed that, of 2,125 mines working in 1938, 927 were using coal-cutting machinery and 680 employed conveyors and gate-end loaders. By 1942, the number of mines working had been reduced to 1,961, of which 927 were cutting coal by machine and 685 were employing conveyors and gate-end loaders. "It is not possible," the Minister stated, "to say how many mines are fully mechanized, since the degree of mechanization possible in each case must always be a matter of opinion." Another means of raising the productivity rate lies in strip or open-pit mining. Virtually no stripping was carried on before June 1942, and in the year ended June 6, 1943, over 2.5 million tons were from open-cut workings.

Industrial Disputes

Strikes in May 1944

THE Bureau's preliminary strike estimates for May show 610 strikes involving 290,000 workers. There were 1,400,000 man-days of idleness during all strikes in May, representing 0.19 percent of the available working time. Strike activity was greater than in any preceding month of 1944. There were, however, fewer workers involved and less strike idleness than in May a year ago when the general coal strike was in progress.

Over 500 of the 610 strikes beginning in May were small and scattered. However, there were 100 strikes in each of which preliminary information shows 500 or more workers involved. Eighteen of the latter, including nearly 100,000 workers, were in Michigan, with 13 of these strikes involving 90,000 workers in the Detroit area. Twenty-one of the 100 largest strikes, including about 30,000 workers, were in Pennsylvania and 8, with 13,000 workers involved, were in Indiana. Wages were important issues in 38 of the 100 largest strikes.

Approximately half of all May strikes were in four States: Pennsylvania had well over 100, Michigan had between 80 and 90, Ohio had from 70 to 75, and Illinois had around 60. Five other States (Alabama, Indiana, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and New York) each had from 20 to 50 strikes, and each of 30 States had less than 20. There were no strikes reported in 9 States during May.

Strikes in May 1944, With Comparative Figures for Earlier Periods ¹

Month	Strikes beginning in month		Man-days idle during month (all strikes)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
May 1944 ²	610	290,000	1,400,000	0.19
April 1944 ²	435	155,000	580,000	.08
May 1943.....	412	557,558	1,467,728	.20
May 1942.....	285	68,820	322,085	.06
May 1941.....	463	321,485	2,172,303	.26
May 1940.....	239	53,231	665,688	.12
May 1939.....	258	95,239	3,547,868	.65

¹ All figures exclude strikes lasting less than 1 working day (or shift) and those involving fewer than 5 workers.

² Preliminary estimates.

FOREMEN'S STRIKE

The Detroit foremen's strike during the first 3 weeks in May involved over 55,000 workers (foremen and production workers), and caused about 300,000 man-days of idleness. Starting at the Briggs Manufacturing Co., it spread to plants of the Hudson and Packard Motor Car Co., Gar Wood Industries, The Murray Corporation of America, and Aeronautical Products, Inc.

The strike followed more than 2 years' effort by the Foremen's Association of America, an unaffiliated union, to obtain union recognition. The association was organized at the Ford Motor Co. in 1941, and signed an agreement with that company in November 1942. An agreement was also signed with the Detroit Lubricator Co., and informal and oral agreements were made with several other Michigan companies. Strikes of foremen in several plants occurred during the latter part of 1943¹ and in early 1944 over the questions of union recognition and discriminatory discharges. Several disputes involving the Foremen's Association of America were certified to the National War Labor Board, and a hearing on the Board's jurisdiction under the War Labor Disputes Act was held in January 1944. Nine cases were pending when the May strike occurred.

Two events of importance to the controversy occurred while the strike was in progress: (1) the National Labor Relations Board, in the Soss Manufacturing and Republic Steel cases, held that supervisory employees may not be discharged or discriminated against because of union membership and activity; and (2) the Ford Motor Co., threatened by a strike of foremen, again signed a contract with the association granting the union full recognition.

On May 9 the National War Labor Board assumed jurisdiction in the foremen's dispute, exclusive of questions of union recognition and discriminatory discharges, these questions falling legally within the jurisdiction of the National Labor Relations Board. In assuming jurisdiction the Board said it would take no action until the men were back at work. Appeals of the Board to local union officials and members failed to terminate the stoppage, and on May 18 the Board summoned officers of the union to a hearing in Washington. Following the hearing, the union's executive board voted to call the men back to work, and the National War Labor Board then appointed a panel to inquire into unsettled grievances of the foremen and the procedures for settling them. The major issue in the strike, union recognition, is still unresolved.

STRIKE OF PACIFIC NORTHWEST LUMBER WORKERS

About 30,000 workers in the sawmill and logging industries were involved in a strike protesting the National War Labor Board's denial of wage increases. The Board had received certifications from the War Production Board and War Manpower Commission that these were "rare and unusual" cases which would probably justify authorizing increases above those normally allowed under the wage-stabilization

¹In May 1943 the National Labor Relations Board, in the Maryland Drydock case, refused to establish collective bargaining units composed of supervisory personnel belonging to the Industrial Union of Marine and Shipbuilding Workers of America and restated the opinion that supervisors should not be included in collective bargaining units with production workers, on the ground that such action would "impede the processes of collective bargaining, disrupt established managerial and production techniques, and militate against effectuation of the [National Labor Relations] Act."

program, in order to meet "critical needs of war production." After extensive hearings before the West Coast Lumber Commission, the Board denied the increases on these grounds, but without prejudice to appeals on other issues, including wages, then pending before the Board.

Starting on May 19 in Seattle and Tacoma, Wash., the strike spread to about 100 mills and camps, principally in Oregon and Washington. Members of the Lumber and Sawmill Workers Union (A. F. of L.) went back to work May 31, after being assured by the National War Labor Board that their petition for a rehearing would be promptly considered after the men returned to work. A smaller group, members of the International Woodworkers of America (C. I. O.), went back a few days later.



Activities of U. S. Conciliation Service, May 1944

THE U. S. Conciliation Service during May disposed of 2,164 situations involving 1,088,162 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 298 were strikes and lockouts involving 114,843 workers and 1,184 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 349,743 workers. During the month 408 disputes were certified to the National War Labor Board, and in 19 cases other agencies assumed jurisdiction. The remaining 255 situations included investigations, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

TABLE 1.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, May 1944, by Type of Situation

Type of situation	Number	Workers involved
All types of situation.....	2,164	1,088,162
Labor disputes.....	1,482	464,586
Strikes.....	264	114,067
Threatened strikes.....	144	57,579
Lockouts.....	4	18
Controversies.....	1,040	292,173
Other situations.....	255	35,490
Arbitrations.....	123	23,890
Technical services.....	30	6,974
Investigations.....	24	1,971
Requests to conduct consent elections.....	1	164
Requests for verification of union membership.....	1	100
Requests for information.....	13	30
Consultations.....	10	21
Special services of Commissioners.....	51	2,367
Complaints.....	2	2
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations.....	427	588,117
To National War Labor Board.....	408	584,239
To National Labor Relations Board.....	12	961
To other Federal agencies.....	3	2,332
To nongovernmental agencies.....	4	965

¹ During the month 172 cases involving 33,009 workers were adjusted subject to hearing-officer or arbitration procedure, with the hearing officer or arbitrator to be selected by the National War Labor Board.

The facilities of the Service were used in 27 major industrial fields, such as building trades and transportation, and the manufacture of iron and steel, transportation equipment, textiles, food, etc. (table 2), and were utilized by the employees and employers in 48 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico and Hawaii (table 3).

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, May 1944, by Industry

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries.....	1,909	1,052,703	255	35,459	2,164	1,088,162
Agriculture.....	75	13,068	7	244	82	13,312
Building trades.....	67	15,256	10	2,938	77	18,194
Chemicals.....	10	1,798			10	1,798
Communications.....	43	264,546	9	2,453	52	266,999
Electrical equipment.....	185	29,671	9	364	194	30,035
Food.....	66	8,058	15	417	81	9,375
Furniture and finished lumber.....	282	109,291	30	1,705	312	110,996
Iron and steel.....	40	6,550	9	151	49	6,681
Leather.....	60	9,459	3	71	63	9,530
Lumber.....	99	79,522	10	358	109	79,880
Machinery.....	13	2,605	1	99	14	2,764
Maritime.....	21	2,064	2	27	23	2,091
Mining.....	4	567			4	567
Motion pictures.....	74	126,446	16	1,970	90	128,416
Nonferrous metals.....	36	5,998	2	76	38	6,074
Paper.....	70	10,520	4	262	74	10,782
Personal service.....	32	5,464	7	633	39	6,097
Petroleum.....	33	4,312	2	3	35	4,315
Printing.....	10	967	1	9	11	966
Professional.....	29	26,977	6	487	35	27,464
Rubber.....	103	23,219	9	97	112	23,316
Stone, clay, and glass.....	82	28,032	25	2,219	107	30,251
Textile.....	8	8,010	1	20	9	8,030
Tobacco.....	109	12,067	9	70	118	12,167
Trade.....	121	31,590	11	374	132	31,964
Transportation.....	175	203,749	32	15,817	207	219,566
Transportation equipment.....	17	8,413	3	185	20	8,598
Utilities.....	45	13,504	22	4,430	67	17,934
Miscellaneous.....						

TABLE 3.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, May 1944, by State

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States.....	1,909	1,052,703	255	35,459	2,164	1,088,162
Alabama.....	22	10,054	4	1,352	26	11,406
Arizona.....	7	793	2	6	9	799
Arkansas.....	13	2,189	1	220	14	2,409
California.....	113	25,093	7	232	120	25,325
Colorado.....	10	967	1	67	11	1,034
Connecticut.....	14	6,627	2	141	17	6,768
Delaware.....	7	9,007	1	7,000	8	16,007
District of Columbia.....	13	6,747	3	261	16	7,008
Florida.....	5	1,110	2	200	7	1,310
Georgia.....	11	553	3	163	14	716
Hawaii.....	1	11	2	160	3	171
Idaho.....	4	252	—	—	4	252
Illinois.....	180	54,117	13	501	193	54,618
Indiana.....	66	18,047	9	1,787	75	19,834
Iowa.....	46	8,480	1	24	47	8,504
Kansas.....	20	1,842	2	275	22	2,117
Kentucky.....	24	5,438	6	495	30	5,933
Louisiana.....	26	7,906	6	26	32	7,932
Maine.....	4	403	3	275	7	678
Maryland.....	19	5,662	2	273	21	5,935
Massachusetts.....	83	28,757	28	7,824	111	36,581
Michigan.....	186	136,072	8	277	194	136,349
Minnesota.....	59	11,898	3	14	62	11,912
Mississippi.....	4	23	1	63	5	86
Missouri.....	81	32,126	2	2	83	32,128
Montana.....	9	1,220	—	—	9	1,220
Nebraska.....	6	1,291	1	3	7	1,294
Nevada.....	4	51	—	—	4	51
New Hampshire.....	11	964	7	180	18	1,144
New Jersey.....	73	58,188	12	3,334	85	61,522
New Mexico.....	1	120	—	—	1	120
New York.....	123	186,550	12	456	135	187,006
North Carolina.....	22	9,880	8	501	30	10,381
North Dakota.....	1	6	—	—	1	6
Ohio.....	203	58,739	30	2,401	233	61,140
Oklahoma.....	14	1,954	1	2	15	1,956
Oregon.....	47	9,648	2	201	49	9,849
Pennsylvania.....	148	249,921	30	3,101	178	253,022
Puerto Rico.....	2	3,400	1	6	3	3,406
Rhode Island.....	15	20,765	2	200	17	20,965
South Carolina.....	6	1,720	—	—	6	1,720
South Dakota.....	2	73	—	—	2	73
Tennessee.....	32	8,072	3	94	35	8,166
Texas.....	33	13,750	9	1,323	42	15,073
Utah.....	8	747	—	—	8	747
Vermont.....	3	209	—	—	3	209
Virginia.....	22	8,435	7	737	29	9,172
Washington.....	35	5,025	3	17	38	5,042
West Virginia.....	16	4,039	6	252	22	4,291
Wisconsin.....	52	33,294	8	1,013	60	34,307
Wyoming.....	3	178	—	—	3	178

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Labor Laws and Decisions

Wartime Relaxation of California's Woman and Child Labor Laws in 1943

DURING 1943 nearly 4,000 applications were received by the California Director of Industrial Relations, requesting relaxation of State laws and regulations concerning the employment of women and minors under the War Production Act and the Minors Emergency Employment Act.¹ The subjects of these applications were as follows:

	Number of applications	Percent of total
Eight-hour law for women.....	2,856	71.5
Child-labor laws.....	659	16.5
Industrial Welfare Commission orders.....	473	11.9
Weight-lifting law—over 50 pounds.....	4	.1
Total.....	3,992	100.0

Though each case was decided on its own merits, as the Department accumulated experience in administering the War Production Act, a fairly definite policy developed to which the Governor gave his approval. In general, this policy restricted the maximum weekly working hours for women to 54, although in certain cases relaxations were allowed ranging as high as 60 hours. No permits were issued for work in excess of 60 hours per week.

The 2,856 applications for the relaxation of sections 1350-1356 of the Labor Code, concerning women's working hours, included 2,714 original applications and 142 applications for the revision of permits. Of the 2,714 original applications, 2,552 included 291,549 women workers, of whom over 153,000 (about 52 percent) were working in aircraft production and approximately 44,000 (15 percent) in shipbuilding. The number of permits granted for the relaxation of hours in 1943 was 2,552, of which 195 (covering 12,364 women) were for periods ranging from 1 day to 7 months.

Permits allowing increased hours for the duration of the war numbered 1,557; 1,069 of these fixed a maximum of 54 hours or less, and 461 allowed a maximum of 54½ to 56 hours for certain female workers. In the majority of cases it was specified that employment could not be extended beyond 48 hours a week except in emergencies "inescapable from exigencies of military necessity," such as ship or troop movements, etc. The daily hours authorized in "duration" permits, which allowed

¹ California, Department of Industrial Relations. *Wartime Relaxation of Laws Governing Employment of Women and Minors, 1943*. San Francisco (April 1944).

a working day of more than 8 hours and a week not to exceed 48 hours, were reported as follows:

Daily maximum of—	Number of permits	Percent
9 hours or less.....	664	83. 0
Over 9 to 10 hours.....	130	16. 2
Over 10 to 12 hours.....	6	. 8
Total.....	800	100. 0

In 177 of the permits authorizing maximum hours which ranged from 54 to 56 per week, 7 days' consecutive employment was allowed but was restricted to not over once or twice in a 4-week period.

Relaxation of Child-Labor Laws

With a few unimportant exceptions, the following policy was followed in connection with relaxations of laws for the employment of minors "for the duration."

1. No relaxation permits for the employment of female minors.
2. No relaxation permits for the employment of any male minor under 16 years of age.
3. No relaxation permits authorizing the extension of maximum hours beyond the statutory limitations of Labor Code Section 1391 (8 hours per day, 48 hours per week).
4. No relaxation permits authorizing seventh-day employment.
5. Relaxation permits may be issued authorizing employment of male minors 16 years of age and over not later than 12 o'clock midnight, provided—
 - (a) Total number of hours of employment and hours in school combined do not exceed 8 per day or 48 per week.
 - (b) Minors do not attend school in the forenoon.
6. No relaxation permits granting exemptions from the hazardous-occupations sections of the child labor laws or from any of the occupational limitations.

Of the 143 "duration" permits for minors, 115 allowed the employment of such minors during second shifts the major number of hours of which occurred before 10 p. m. With 3 exceptions the 115 permits for night work were restricted to male minors.

Relaxation of Industrial Welfare Commission Orders on Women's Employment

An analysis of the 466 permits for the relaxation of the California Industrial Welfare Commission's orders concerning women workers shows the following types of relaxation and coverage:

	Number of permits	Number of women
Night work.....	330	32, 136
Weight lifting.....	60	4, 539
Meal period.....	13	2, 157
Eight-hour day in offices.....	47	2, 075
Rest period.....	1	160
Homework.....	15	157
Total.....	466	41, 224

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Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor¹

Labor Relations and Industrial Disputes

INSURANCE company subject to National Labor Relations Act.—The United States Supreme Court in *Polish National Alliance of U. S. v. National Labor Relations Board* affirmed a judgment of the Seventh Circuit Court of Appeals (136 Fed. (2d) 175) which held that a fraternal benefit nonprofit corporation which issued insurance benefits to its members is covered by the Wagner Act.²

The circuit court stated that Alliance was subject to the act since it was engaged in interstate commerce. The lower court observed that as the Wagner Act applies to activities "affecting commerce," even if the business of the company did not constitute interstate commerce, a labor dispute between it and its employees would meet the coverage standards of the act.

Mr. Justice Frankfurter, writing the Supreme Court's opinion, stated that the National Labor Relations Board had authority to prevent practices "tending to lead to a labor dispute burdening or obstructing commerce or the free flow of commerce" (29 U. S. C. sec. 152 (7)) and that the Board was justified in finding that the unfair labor practices of the Alliance would affect commerce. He pointed out that this large insurance organization, conducting a widespread advertising campaign, publishing a weekly newspaper for its members, sending business notices throughout the United States, investing in securities, and carrying on numerous financial transactions, exercised a substantial effect on interstate commerce. He added that the society's cultural and fraternal activities did not remove it from the purview of the act.

Mr. Justice Black, writing a concurring opinion in which Mr. Justice Douglas and Mr. Justice Murphy joined, rested the affirmance of the lower court's judgment on the basis that the conduct of the insurance business is commerce and therefore subject to Federal regulation.

Newsboys held "employees" under Wagner Act.—The United States Supreme Court in *National Labor Relations Board v. Hearst Publications, Inc.*³ held that newsboys, working full time for newspaper publishers, are "employees" of the publishers and are entitled to the protection of the Wagner Act.⁴

A group of newspaper publishers refused to bargain collectively with a union representing newsboys, which had been certified by the National Labor Relations Board. The publishers contended that they were not required to bargain with the union since the newsboys were not "employees" within the meaning of the National Labor Relations Act. The Board found the companies guilty of an unfair labor practice in their refusal to bargain, and petitioned the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals for an enforcement order. The circuit court set aside the Board's order and held that the newsboys are not employees according to common-law standards, but are independent

¹ Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of significant decisions believed to be of especial interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial developments in the field of labor law nor to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached based upon local statutory provisions, the existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

² 64 Sup. Ct. — (June 5, 1944), Mr. Justice Roberts not participating.

³ Also *Sene v. Stockholders Publishing Co., Inc.*; *Same v. Times-Mirror Co.*, 64 Sup. Ct. 851 (Apr. 24, 1944).

⁴ Mr. Justice Roberts dissenting.

contractors (136 Fed. (2d) 608). On appeal to the United States Supreme Court, the judgment of the circuit court was reversed.

The Supreme Court rejected the traditional common-law test which differentiates between independent contractors and employees. The majority opinion stated that when "the economic facts of the relation make it more nearly one of employment than of independent business enterprise with respect to the ends sought to be accomplished by the legislation, those characteristics may outweigh technical legal classification for purposes unrelated to the statute's objectives and bring the relation within its protection."

These economic facts, as found by the National Labor Relations Board, were that the newsboys worked continuously and regularly. Their wages were, in effect, set by the publishers who fixed the buying and selling prices of the papers, the method of selling, and the selling places. In addition, the hours of work were prescribed and the supply of newspapers was controlled by the publishers.

The Supreme Court also stated that the task of limiting the definition of "employee" is a duty given by Congress to the Board, and that the function of the court in reviewing the Board's conclusions is restricted.

Union bargaining rights.—In a unanimous opinion (Mr. Chief Justice Stone not participating) the United States Supreme Court, in *Franks Bros. Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*⁵ upheld an enforcement order of the First Circuit Court of Appeals, directing an employer to bargain with a union which had lost its majority status subsequent to the commission of certain unfair labor practices by the employer.

The National Labor Relations Board had found the employer guilty of a number of unfair labor practices, including continuous refusal to bargain with a union seeking representative status in the employer's plant. Although the union lost its majority status between the time it filed charges against the company and the time the Board issued a complaint, the employer was nevertheless ordered to bargain with the union which had represented a majority of the employees at the time the unfair labor practices were committed.

The Board, stated the Court, has the responsibility "to direct such action as will dissipate the unwholesome effects of violations of the act," and in its discretion it has adopted a requirement that union membership be regarded as intact during delays in pursuing its remedy. Any other result, stated the Court, "would result in permitting employers to profit from their own wrongful refusal to bargain."

Individual bargaining under the Wagner Act.—A union had been recognized as the exclusive bargaining agent of a group of employees in a plant, and the management had promised to meet with its representatives for the purpose of negotiating a contract. One of the provisions in the contract proposed by the union related to wage increases. After the union had been granted recognition, but before the scheduled meeting, a committee of union members speaking in their own behalf and for the other union members (although not purporting to represent the union as such) approached the company's manager and stated that they had no desire to belong to the union if the company would give them a wage increase. The manager stated that he would consider the request, and told the committee to return

⁵ 64 Sup. Ct. 817 (Apr. 10, 1944).

on a designated date after the manager had had an opportunity to confer with the company's president.

After consultation with the president, the manager met with the committee and told the group that its request would be granted. The committee conveyed this message to the other employees for whom they had spoken, and all agreed to accept the wage increases. The manager was informed of the employees' acceptance, and the committee notified the union representative that the employees did not wish the union to represent them. The committee's subsequent meeting with the company manager and its notification of desire to withdraw from the union occurred early on the same day that the union representative was scheduled to meet with the company representative to discuss contract terms. When that meeting took place, the company's attorney declined to negotiate, stating that it was his understanding that the union no longer represented a majority of the employees, and that an election should be had before any negotiations were begun.

On the basis of these facts the National Labor Relations Board concluded that, at the time the wage increases were promised by the company, the union was still the bargaining agent, and that the promised wage increase was for the purpose of encouraging withdrawals of union membership; therefore the individual bargaining constituted an unfair labor practice. The Second Circuit Court of Appeals upheld the Board's order, directing the company to cease its unfair labor practices and to bargain with the union (135 Fed. (2d) 279); this judgment was affirmed by the United States Supreme Court (*Medo Photo Supply Corp. v. National Labor Relations Board*⁶).

In the light of the fact that a union had been recognized as representing the employees involved, the Court pointed out that section 9 (a) of the Wagner Act makes it the duty of an employer to bargain collectively with the representatives chosen by his employees, and bargaining with individual employees violates the Wagner Act.⁷ Direct negotiation by the company with the employees when they had not revoked their designation of the union is an unfair labor practice, stated the court. It also held that the promise of increased wages in order to induce the employees to withdraw from the union was an unfair labor practice, as it interfered with the right of self-organization guaranteed by the act. The court observed: "The action of employees with respect to the choice of their bargaining agents may be induced by favors bestowed by the employer as well as by his threats or domination."

The Court rejected the company's argument that the denial of a wage increase would be equally an unfair labor practice for that would influence the employees to stay in the union. This result could be avoided, stated the Court, if the employer had insisted on negotiation with only the designated bargaining agent of his employees.

Employers' freedom of speech and the Wagner Act.—Section 8 (1) of the National Labor Relations Act (29 U. S. C. sec. 151 et seq.) declares it an unfair labor practice for an employer to "interfere with, restrain, or coerce" employees in the exercise of their rights of self-organization and collective bargaining. The question whether anti-union speeches

⁶ 34 Sup. Ct.—(Apr. 10, 1944), Mr. Justice Roberts and Mr. Justice Rutledge dissenting.

⁷ To this effect, see *J. I. Case Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*, 64 Sup. Ct.—, discussed in *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1944 (p. 788).

by company officials and an anti-union bulletin posted by the company interfered with, restrained or coerced employees so as to constitute an unfair labor practice was before the United States Supreme Court in 1941 in *National Labor Relations Board v. Virginia Electric & Power Co.*, 314 U. S. 469.

The Court held that the speeches and the bulletin were equivocal in meaning and not coercive, unless considered against a background of other anti-union activities of the company. Since the Court was unable to ascertain whether the Board had considered the speeches and the bulletin in such a light, the case was remanded to the Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals with directions to remand it to the Board for a redetermination in accordance with the Supreme Court's opinion. The Court did not say that words alone could never be coercive but that the words involved, in this particular case, were not of such a character.⁸

The question of the freedom of an employer to present his views to his employees by letter arose in a slightly different manner before the Circuit Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit in *Budd Manufacturing Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*.⁹ The National Labor Relations Board sought to have a company adjudged guilty of contempt because of an alleged violation of a court decree enforcing a Board order entered against the company (138 Fed. (2d) 86). In the original proceeding to enforce the Board's order, the court had sustained the Board in directing the company to cease engaging in unfair labor practices, to post notices of compliance, to disestablish a company union, and to reinstate two employees discharged for union activities. The Board charged that the company violated the terms of the court decree when it sent letters to its employees which tended to influence their vote in a forthcoming election. Although the company's preference for an inside union was clear in the letters, there were no threats of reprisal made against those who might vote otherwise.

The court held that the employer had not violated the previous court decree, as the expression of opinion alone in this case, without further anti-union activity, could not be interpreted as coercive or intimidating. The court rejected the Board's argument that the letters should be considered in the light of the 10 years of employer domination of the company union. It stated that this anti-union activity had been remedied by the previous court decree, and that the employer's freedom of expression should not be limited because of his misconduct in the past.

Conduct of an election by a regional director of the NLRB.—An employer urged the National Labor Relations Board to set aside an election in the employer's plant because of the regional director's alleged misconduct in the holding of the election (*In re Botany Worsted Mills*, 56 N. L. R. B., No. 75). The act complained of was the regional director's use of the press to charge that the employer was interfering with the freedom of his employees to vote. The press release charged the employer with engaging in the following activities: Indicating to employees how they should vote in the election, urging employees to

⁸ Accord *National Labor Relations Board v. American Tube Bending Co.*, 134 Fed. (2d) 993, certiorari denied, 64 Sup. Ct. —. However, see the following cases in which courts upheld the Board in finding that anti-union notices and letters, when considered in a background of other anti-union activities, constituted an interference with employees' rights of self-organization: *Trojan Powder Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*, 135 Fed. (2d) 337, certiorari denied, 64 Sup. Ct. —, and *Jacksonville Paper Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*, 137 Fed. (2d) 148, certiorari denied, 64 Sup. Ct. —.

⁹ — Fed. (2) — (May 12, 1944).

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vote against the union, and sending bonus checks to employees on the day before election. The release also stated that the company was at the present time subject to an injunction, issued by the Third Circuit Court of Appeals, requiring it to cease questioning or threatening employees with respect to their union activities.

The Board, in reviewing the record, found that the company had delayed setting an election date, violated election rules in formulating its own plans to grant voting time to its employees, distributed Christmas bonus checks to its employees on the day preceding election—but post-dated the checks which were supposed to be mailed on election day. The company had held 14 different meetings, requiring its employees to attend, at which anti-union speeches were made by the company's president. The Board also found that supervisory employees had made anti-union statements to employees and questioned them regarding union activities. This was being done although the company had been enjoined by the Third Circuit Court of Appeals from questioning or threatening employees with reference to their union activities.¹⁰

In view of this improper and illegal interference with the voting rights of the employees, the Board concluded that the regional director was justified in taking steps to dissipate the effects of the employer's interference. Holding that the method used by its agent was a reasonable one to reach the employees whom the company had improperly influenced, the Board stated that the regional director, as its agent, has the duty to supervise the holding of secret elections at which employees are given the right to choose a collective-bargaining representative.

As a concomitant of that duty, and for the purpose of effectuating it, * * * the Regional Director has the power to adopt certain measures which, * * * will best insure a proper and fair election. * * * Unquestionably, he or his agent may undertake to prevent interference with the election at the polls, whether such interference emanates from representatives of an employer or from adherents of the union. Nor is his power limited to the preventive stage. He may prescribe and execute appropriate action designed to dissipate the effects of interference already accomplished.

Use of bulletin board in plant.—In the case of *In re Peerless Electrical Products Co.* (15 War Lab. Rept. 253), the Regional War Labor Board at San Francisco refused to grant a union's request for unrestricted use of a bulletin board in a plant.

The union argued that the bulletin board was for the sole use of the employees, and that management should not have the right to forbid the posting of bulletins on political and economic subjects. The union asserted that it was an organization engaged in political activity, and that the bulletin board was one of the most effective methods of acquainting its membership with political events. The company claimed that political and economic matters were irrelevant to the functions of the union in its relations with management, and therefore bulletins on such subjects should not be posted on the board.

The Regional War Labor Board resolved the dispute by directing the parties to include in their collective-bargaining agreement a provision which restricted the use of the bulletin board to "(a) notices of union recreational and social affairs; (b) notices of union elections; (c) notices of union appointments and results of union elections; (d)

¹⁰ 106 Fed. (2d) 263, certiorari denied, — Sup. Ct. — (Oct. 18, 1943).

notices of union meetings, including those concerned with political or economic subjects."

The findings of the Board's hearing officer stated that political subjects are not related to an employee's efficiency during his working hours, but announcements of meetings at which political subjects are to be discussed should not be prohibited. He stated further that the unrestricted posting of bulletins on controversial political and economic topics might even interfere with production. It was his opinion that it would be just as objectionable for the company to use similar methods to influence employees on political subjects. It would not be proper, added the hearing officer, for the National War Labor Board to place itself in a position, which might subject it to criticism, of encouraging the union to engage in political activities on company property.

Decisions of State Courts

Interference with employment.—An Arkansas law makes it a crime for a person to use violence or threats of violence to prevent another from engaging in a lawful occupation in the State (Acts of 1943, No. 193, sec. 1). The constitutionality of this statute was tested before the Arkansas Supreme Court in the case of *Smith and Brown v. State*.¹¹

The court found that a painting contractor, employing nonunion labor, was attacked by union painters who tried to prevent him from continuing to employ nonunion workers on a job. As a result of the assault on the contractor, his helpers were frightened away from the job and work was suspended for that day.

In affirming the trial court's verdict of guilty against the attackers, the State Supreme Court noted that this was the first conviction under the statute. The court relied on two decisions of the Texas Court of Criminal Appeals which had upheld a similar statute of that State: *Ex parte Frye*, 156 S. W. (2d) 531 and *Ex parte Sanford*, 157 S. W. (2d) 899.¹²

The court considered the argument raised in the Frye case—that the statute denied the defendants the equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the Federal Constitution, as the same act (an assault) is punished differently depending on the situation in which it occurs; the act of assaulting another person is ordinarily a misdemeanor, but in the present case if a person is assaulted to prevent him from engaging in a lawful occupation, the assailant may be held guilty of a felony. The court rejected this argument by stating that an ordinary assault is directed against the person, while an assault of the kind involved here is directed against a person's vocation as well. This, the court said, was a reasonable distinction between the two offenses and therefore the legislature could prescribe different penalties for them. The court added that the statute prohibited the use of force or violence and that the legislature, in passing this statute, had reasonably exercised the State's police power for the purpose of protecting the public.

¹¹ — S. W. (2d) — (Apr. 10, 1944).

¹² Appeal dismissed in the United States Supreme Court on the ground that no Federal question was involved, *Sanford v. Hill*, 316 U. S. 647, 62 Sup. Ct. 1292.

Equal Pay Statute.—Under the Michigan Equal Pay Statute (Mich. Stat. Ann., sec. 28.824), an employer may be guilty of a misdemeanor if he discriminates in the payment of wages between male and female employees doing comparable work. In *St. John v. General Motors Corp.*¹³ a woman worker brought suit, on behalf of herself and 28 other women, against an employer to recover the difference between wages paid them and those paid to men engaged in similar work. The suit was based upon the rights given to women by the Equal Pay Statute. One of the questions before the Michigan Supreme Court was whether the plaintiff could bring a civil action to enforce her rights, or whether the legislature intended that the statute should be enforced only by criminal prosecution. The court answered the question by saying that if the plaintiff has suffered financial damage by reason of the employer's discrimination, a civil action may be maintained.

In arriving at this conclusion, the court relied upon *Bolden v. Grand Rapids Operating Corp.*, 239 Mich. 318. In that case a Negro sued a theater owner who violated the Michigan Civil Rights Act by refusing to sell him a theater ticket. The statute provided criminal penalties for its violation, but—like the Equal Pay Statute—contained no provision for a civil remedy. The court in the *Bolden* case decided that the duty imposed by the Civil Rights Law was not merely for the benefit of the public as a group, but also for the benefit of particular individuals or classes of individuals, and therefore any injured person had the right to maintain a private action.

¹³ — N. W. (2d) — (Apr. 3, 1944).

Discharged Soldiers

Policies on Reemployment of Veterans and War Workers

REALIZING that many persons will experience difficulty in readjusting from war to peace activities, Federal agencies are trying to make certain that such persons receive information regarding services and benefits that have been provided to help individuals make the readjustment.

To accomplish this purpose, the President on February 24, 1944, by Executive Order No. 9427, established a Retraining and Reemployment Administration,¹ which is to have general supervision and direction of the activities of all Government agencies relating to the retraining and reemployment of persons discharged or released from the armed services or other war work. To assist this agency in the performance of its duties, the President created a Retraining and Reemployment Policy Board, which is "composed of a representative of the Department of Labor, the Federal Security Agency, the War Manpower Commission, the Selective Service System, the Veterans Administration, the Civil Service Commission, the War Department, the Navy Department, and the War Production Board."

*Information Service Centers for Veterans and War Workers*²

Information centers were provided for in a report adopted by the Retraining and Reemployment Policy Board on April 14, 1944. The centers have the duty of supplying veterans with complete information concerning their rights, how and where to secure them, at the time of separation from the service, or, failing that, to see that such information is obtained from the U. S. Employment Service, the Selective Service System, or the Veterans Administration. For both veterans and war workers the centers are to make sure that there is a single place in the community to which they may go for information.

According to the Board, information service centers are to be undertaken by the armed services, the U. S. Employment Service, the Selective Service System, and the Veterans Administration. The other Federal agencies rendering service or supplying benefits to the veteran are to supply data for use by the information centers.

*Establishment of Veterans' Service Committees*¹

Pursuant to the intent of Executive Order No. 9427, and to provide a uniform pattern for information centers, the Administrator of

¹ Federal Register, May 20, 1944 (pp. 5391-5392).

² War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No. 380, May 8, 1944.

Retraining and Reemployment, on May 27, 1944, ordered the establishment of both State and community veterans' service committees. Each State committee will consist of a representative of the Selective Service System, the War Manpower Commission, and the Veterans Administration; and will act as a central point for, and to mobilize the efforts of, volunteer or other groups in the State in relation to veterans' information activities.

The community committees are to be composed of representatives of the Selective Service System, the U. S. Employment Service, and the Veterans Administration, "in so far as any one or all of these agencies have representatives available in the community." Each local committee will determine whether a special information center is necessary, in addition to those already available in the community, and whether an appropriate location and necessary facilities are locally available.

The function of an information center is to be primarily one of advice and reference. Actual determination of eligibility for benefits or special services is to be the function of the agency administering such service.

Reemployment Policies of Selective Service System¹

A statement of policies regarding reemployment of veterans was issued by National Headquarters of the Selective Service System on May 20, 1944. These reemployment policies relate to persons honorably discharged from the armed services (Army, Navy, Marines, and Coast Guard), who apply for reemployment within 40 days after being relieved from training and service, and who are able to perform the duties of the positions applied for. If the position formerly held by the applying veteran has been so upgraded that it is beyond his skill, he is entitled to a job requiring comparable skill and equal in seniority status and pay to that which he vacated.

The Selective Training and Service Act of 1940, which defines the reemployment rights of veterans, provides that a veteran is not entitled to reinstatement if the position in which he was formerly employed was a "temporary position." To serve as guides in determining whether a job is temporary or permanent, Selective Service makes the following observations: "It is the character of relationship between the employer and employee, whether temporary or permanent, that should govern rather than the particular assignment being carried out at the time of entry into service." In the case of jobs created by war expansion, the Selective Service states that the permanent or temporary character of the job depends upon the facts and circumstances in each individual case. Some of the factors to be considered are (1) whether the position was newly created, (2) whether the veteran was the first occupant thereof, (3) whether the job was intended as a "wartime" or as a "permanent" position, (4) the circumstances or agreements existing at the time of the original employment, and (5) after employment commenced, whether the relationship between the employer and employee was such that they contemplated a permanent relationship in the ordinary sense of industrial and commercial practice.

¹National Selective Service System, Local Board Memorandum No. 190-A, May 20, 1944.

Under the Selective Training and Service Act, a private employer is not required to reinstate a veteran if his circumstances have so changed as to make it "unreasonable or impossible to do so." What constitutes such a change in an employer's circumstances as to make a veteran's reinstatement "impossible or unreasonable" must be decided by the facts and circumstances in each case. The convenience of an employer must be distinguished from "impossible" or "unreasonable," and the fact that the nonveteran to be replaced is receiving less pay than the employer would be required to pay the veteran should not be considered as a condition "unreasonable or impossible." Neither the fact that an employer now employs women instead of male veterans, nor his promise of permanent employment to those who filled the places vacated by veterans, is an excuse for failure to reemploy veterans.

A veteran is entitled to immediate reinstatement. The term "immediate," however, is not to be understood in a literal sense of "instant" but rather as meaning "without unnecessary delay." If a physical examination of the veteran is required, either by law or police or health regulations, or if other preliminaries are necessary as a prerequisite to ordinary employment, a reasonable time should be allowed therefor. The mere convenience of the employer is not an excuse for delaying reinstatement of the veteran. A veteran entitled to reemployment rights may, by legal action instituted in accordance with the act, recover back pay even after his reinstatement if such reinstatement was improperly delayed or postponed by the employer.

A veteran entitled to reemployment may not be discharged from his restored position "without cause within 1 year after such restoration." What is "cause" for dismissal in any case must be determined by the facts and circumstances in each case. The question is to be determined by standards of common sense and is to be measured by practices and customs generally acceptable in industry or practices and customs in common and accepted use in the particular place of employment. At the same time, a veteran who has been reinstated to his former position cannot within 1 year be displaced by another on the ground that the latter has greater seniority rights.



Plans for Reemployment of India's Demobilized Soldiers

AT THE meeting of India's Policy Committee of Resettlement and Reemployment of demobilized soldiers, which was held at New Delhi, February 29, 1944, the discussions were largely focused on the following plans formulated by the Government:¹

- (a) A scheme of vocational training which aims at teaching soldiers better farming, better husbandry, antimalarial measures, sanitation and hygiene and cooperation, besides instructing them in subsidiary agricultural occupations like dairying, poultry keeping, etc.
- (b) A scheme to establish agricultural headquarters and welfare institutes in recruiting areas financed from the fund for assisting returned soldiers.
- (c) Industrial cooperative societies.
- (d) An Indian Corps of Commissioners.

¹ Indian Information (Government of India, Principal Information Officer, Washington, D. C.), March 15, 1944, p. 290.

It was generally agreed that these proposals constituted a notable contribution to the solution of the problem, but it was stressed that any scheme to benefit ex-servicemen should harmonize with the larger reconstruction program for India as a whole, and at the same time be suitable for the particular Provinces concerned.

The maintenance of agricultural prices at a stable level was emphasized as an important initial step to any provision for the improvement of agriculture in behalf of demobilized soldiers and others.

With a view to checking litigation, the establishment of arbitration boards was urged.

An appeal was made for special facilities for particular classes of demobilized soldiers; also for the coverage by the schemes of civilian labor doing war work.

Youth in Industry

Effect of Part-Time Work on Standing of High-School Students

BRIEF investigations of high-school students engaged in part-time work have recently been made in New York City, Peoria, Ill., and East Orange, N. J.¹

In an East Orange high school, about one of every four students was working part time. Students whose work at school would probably be adversely affected by outside paid employment were recommended not to take such employment. The greatest number of part-time workers was among students in the college preparatory courses. The conclusion arrived at from this survey was that "students who are potentially able to do good work in school are actually doing it in spite of part-time activities." However, the New Jersey law restricting to 8 hours the combined work and school day for students under 16 may account for this finding.

In 3 high schools and 2 junior high schools in Peoria, 1,650 out of 5,000 students were working for wages. The proportion of boys working in the several high schools varied from 30.0 to 47.7 percent and of girls from 14.6 to 30.4 percent. The great majority of junior high-school boys were employed as bus boys and in bowling alleys. Although the greater number of the students were employed outside less than 30 hours per week, there were 117 whose weekly work in addition to their school work ranged from 31 to 40 hours, and 56 were employed over 40 hours per week. The Illinois law limits the combined school and work programs for boys and girls under 16 to 8 hours per day. Withdrawals from school were only 1 percent above the 1937-38 record, but the advantages of remaining in school were doubtful, since, according to the deans and teachers, "the students were too sleepy to absorb anything in class and some of them were unable to keep up with their school work."

The study in New York City included a selected group of students rather than those in specified high schools. The figures were prepared by the Bureau of Attendance. Among 774 pupils who were part-time workers absences increased only slightly, but the findings indicated that part-time outside work affected the scholastic standing adversely. The scholastic record of the group of part-time workers, even before they took outside employment was somewhat lower than average, and after they undertook part-time jobs, there was a decided rise in the number who failed in two or more subjects.

The article summarizing these surveys comments: "How much a student's school work suffers from after-school employment probably

¹ The American Child (National Child Labor Committee, New York), April 1944.

depends on how good a student he is to begin with and whether his employment is limited to a reasonable number of hours either by law or through cooperative school-work programs."



Study of Chicago Students Leaving High School Before Graduation

THE Illinois Child Labor Committee, disturbed over the accelerated movement from school to jobs, obtained from the Chicago Board of Education lists of the students who had dropped out of the 43 Chicago high schools in June 1942. It then requested the School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago to make a follow-up study of a representative sample in order to find out the causes of their leaving school, and to make a more intensive study of the boys and girls who were gainfully occupied.¹ Eight schools were included in the sample, and visits were made to the homes of 381 boys and girls who were under 18 years of age in June 1942 when they withdrew from school before graduation.

According to the preliminary findings of this survey, 9 of these boys and girls were only 14 years of age, and 103 were only 15, when they left school. Even when those who reached 16 in the summer of 1942 were taken into account, there were still approximately 15 percent who were under the compulsory school-attendance age of 16 when they dropped out of school.

Leaving school at so early an age means that educationally these boys and girls are ill prepared to meet future responsibilities either on the job or in the home, especially when it is pointed out that 55 percent had completed only the first year of high school or less. While there was some retardation among the group, the majority, again about 55 percent, were up to grade or even accelerated at the time they cut short their education, if normal progress is based on the standard that eighth grade should have been completed before fifteen.

The primary force that is drawing these boys and girls away from school is the opportunity to get a job at wages that appear highly attractive to an inexperienced adolescent and which often are below those offered a more mature person.

Of the 381 young people contacted, 78 percent had remunerative employment at the time the home was visited, and 5 percent, all boys, had gone into the military service.

Included in the remaining 17 percent were a few who were compelled to withdraw from school because of illness such as osteomyelitis or tuberculosis, a somewhat larger number who were engaged in household duties in the home in the mother's absence, and finally both married and single girls who were not gainfully employed at the time they were interviewed but who might take jobs later.

The 300 boys and girls employed at the time of the investigator's visit were engaged in various occupations which are primarily classified by the U. S. Employment Service as "semiskilled, unskilled, and service jobs." In 37 percent of the cases the young persons were employed for 48 or more hours per week.

Very late hours and illegal employment were found often to be combined. Children under 16 years of age who had no employment certificates obtained jobs with alarming ease, and frequently these jobs were hazardous or demanded heavy labor.

¹ Illinois Child Labor Committee Study of School Drop-Outs. Chicago, September 1943. (Mimeo-graphed.)

As a result of the many new war-job opportunities, the boys and girls were restless and unsteady and had made frequent changes of employment. In 10 to 12 months, more than 25 percent of the 381 young persons covered in this study held 3 or more jobs. One boy in this group, 16 years of age, had had 9 jobs between June 1942 and April 1943.

The summary here reviewed closes with the following pertinent excerpt from the U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 289 (Washington, 1943): Wartime Employment of Boys and Girls under 18.

Positive action must be initiated through State and local groups that represent both the forces primarily interested in the welfare of youth and the forces primarily interested in production needs and the contribution of young persons to those needs. These groups should plan to carry out definite programs for conserving the health and educational opportunities of youth under 18, while at the same time satisfying legitimate demands for their assistance in meeting labor needs in a particular area. Programs must be developed to meet existing situations, and future emergencies must be foreseen and planned for. Only an alert and aroused public opinion, coordinated through such group action, will recognize and successfully combat the dangers inherent in the present trends.

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Prison Labor

Wartime Production in State Prisons

INDUSTRIAL and agricultural output from State prisons has been increased during the war under liberalized rulings and orders of the Federal Government, thereby benefiting the country by providing needed goods such as garments for war purposes, and raising the morale of prisoners who are contributing to the war effort through the work they are performing. Extension of production was suggested as a means of utilizing existing plant, equipment, and manpower in the prisons. The Prison Industries Branch of the War Production Board was established in December 1941 to administer the program.

Industrial production.—According to the WPB report here reviewed,¹ the potential productive capacity of the State prison and reformatory industrial plants of the country was estimated at some \$44,000,000 a year in 1942. Before wartime restrictions were placed on raw materials and production, industrial output from State prisons had totaled only \$21,000,000, or 48 percent of existing capacity, and after priorities and other restrictions were imposed the value had dropped to slightly over \$15,000,000, or 35 percent of the capacity. Under the liberalized production program the volume increased to \$25,000,000 in 1943, and a great productive increase was anticipated later through the use of existing plant, newly installed equipment, and improved industrial morale of prisoners.

Prison-produced articles include many that are traditionally associated with penal institutions, such as cotton and woolen goods, metalware, brooms, and brushes. Others distinctly identified with the war are assault boats, shell cases, bomb crates, bomb noses, truck bodies, submarine nets, cargo nets, shirts for the Navy, bush shirts, boiler suits, stretchers, flags, and leather insignia. During 1943, Michigan led in the value of prison production, followed by Oklahoma and Alabama in the order named. Prisons in the industrialized States of the North contributed relatively little of the output. Certain other States, such as Minnesota, Maryland, Tennessee, and Virginia, that are not primarily industrial, furnished a greater share.

Agricultural production.—Growth in State-prison agriculture has resulted in more food and undoubtedly a better diet for persons whose food is furnished by the penal farms. The total value of prison-grown farm products was \$18,852,798 in 1941, \$24,015,470 in 1942, and from preliminary estimates for 1943 it was expected that the output would compare favorably with that in 1942. Nearly 25,000 prisoners were engaged in agricultural operations in 1943. Ohio, Louisiana, and Texas prisons had the largest volume, by value, of

¹ Prisons in Wartime, U. S. War Production Board, Government Division, Prison Industries Branch. Washington, 1943.

agricultural production in 1942. Louisiana prisons had no industrial production, while Ohio, for example, made large industrial contributions to production in addition to farm products.

Significant changes in practice respecting the movement of prisoners were observed by the WPB. In Arizona, prisoners were permitted to work at various places in the State and were paid prevailing wages by the farmers for whom they worked. The prisoners paid their guards out of their own wages. In Virginia and North Carolina, prisoners assisted farmers in gathering their potato crop. Some 200 prisoners assisted in agricultural work in Montana during 1943 and the monthly income to the State from their labor was approximately \$20,000 a month.

Prison problems and suggested remedies.—Notwithstanding progress in both prison manufacture and agriculture since 1941, the WPB report noted that idleness and semi-idleness were still too prevalent in State prisons and that every effort should be made to put the inmates to work. Greater production could be achieved, it was stated, by increasing the number of workers, lengthening the workday, and adding a second or third shift of work daily. Although prison inertia is a deterrent to such development, some prison administrators have achieved remarkable production for the war effort by devices of the kind listed above. However, for State prisons as a whole it was said to be probable that not over 50 percent of the actual productive capacity has yet been put to effective use.

Among the measures the desirability of which was stressed in the report were (1) a program of safety education (use of safety devices on all machinery and the employment of inspectors to see that they are used where advocated), (2) an educational campaign to teach prison workers the importance of safeguarding themselves against accidents, and (3) integration of prison production with rehabilitation, so that when the prisoners are released they will be healthy, trained men.

Wage and Hour Statistics

Wage Rates in Year-Round Hotels, Spring and Summer of 1943¹

Summary

HOURLY wage rates in year-round hotels in the spring and summer of 1943 tended to concentrate at relatively low levels. Average rates in the median city representing 72 cities studied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics were 56 cents for general clerks; 49 cents for cashiers; 39 cents for housemen; 37 cents for linen-room women; and 33.5 cents for chambermaids. Average rates were highest in the largest cities (500,000 population or more). Regional variations in wage rates were similar to the regional pattern of wages typically observed in other industries; they were highest in the Pacific Coast cities and lowest in the South.

Characteristics of the Hotel Industry

The provision of lodging for transients is one of the leading service industries of the United States. Although essentially a peacetime industry, the hotel business has felt the impact of the war in marked degree. Hotels in most large cities have been crowded as never before, while thousands of hotel employees have gone into the armed services or have taken jobs in other industries. In consequence, the wage rates paid to hotel employees have undergone critical examination by management as well as labor, and are a subject of considerable public interest.

According to the Census of Business for 1939, there were 28,000 hotels in the United States; they provided full-time employment to 301,310 workers, and part-time work to 36,719 others. These establishments included both year-round and seasonal hotels; the former group numbered about 25,000 and the latter about 3,000. From the standpoint of employment, the year-round hotels constitute by far the dominant group; seasonal hotels employed on the average only 16,000 workers in 1939. Thanks to successful recruitment of labor from other industries and from the ranks of new entrants into the labor market, employment in hotels has not declined in recent years. In fact, current employment is probably slightly above 1939 levels.

Although hotels form an integral part of the life of practically all cities, they are concentrated primarily in the most populated areas. In 1939 eleven States with over 50 percent of the total population accounted for more than three-fifths of all hotel capacity, measured in terms of guest rooms, and employed over three-fifths of all wage

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by James P. Corkery, under the supervision of Harry Ober.

earners in hotels. Approximately one-third of all hotel wage earners in 1939 were found in the 14 largest cities of the United States.

Over 70 percent of all hotels in the United States were operated in 1939 by individual proprietors. These, however, were primarily small hotels. The corporate form of ownership accounted for over two-fifths of the total number of guest rooms, and for over 70 percent of all hotel wage earners.

The hotel industry embraces a variety of services in addition to lodging; large hotels commonly operate their own restaurants and drinking places, laundries, storage facilities, and commodity sales departments. The labor force varies, therefore, with the size of the hotel and the type of services rendered.

In the hotel proper, the vast majority of the employees consists of chambermaids, housemen, and linen-room women, engaged in various housekeeping activities. In the hotel offices the occupations of room clerks, general clerks, telephone operators, and typists are typical. Engineers and firemen constitute two important occupations in the building-maintenance group.

In 1939, according to the Census, about three-fifths of all hotel employees were men and about two-fifths were women. Since 1939, however, women have been employed in increasing proportions in hotels, even in occupations in which men formerly predominated.

Estimated gross average hourly and weekly earnings for all workers in year-round hotels have registered a gradual and constant increase during the war period.² From January 1941 to April 1943 gross average hourly earnings increased approximately 30 percent, from 33.8 cents to 43.7 cents, while gross weekly earnings rose from \$15.65 to \$19.54, representing a 25-percent increase during this same period. Between April 1943—the period of the Bureau's study—and March 1944, a further additional increase of about 13 percent took place in both the gross hourly and weekly averages.

Method of Study

The present discussion of wage rates in the hotel industry is based on a series of 72 community wage studies, covering about 1,000 hotels and approximately 20,000 workers. The studies were limited to year-round hotels in cities of over 100,000 population. They included all the largest cities (500,000 population or more) with the exception of New York City, and a substantial proportion of cities of 100,000 to 500,000 population.

The information obtained for each city is based on a representative sample of hotels with 9 or more employees. The data refer for the most part to a pay-roll period in the spring and summer of 1943. In a few of the cities the studies covered a pay-roll period in January or March of 1943.

The five occupations selected for study are typical hotel occupations, and their rates are believed to be representative of the range of rates of the most numerous group of hotel wage earners. Workers associated with restaurant, laundry, and other supplementary hotel services are not covered by this report. Of the five occupations, chambermaids are the most numerous group, constituting 68 percent, while housemen represented about 15 percent, general clerks 8 percent, linen-room women 6 percent, and cashiers about 3 percent of all em-

² Based on figures of the Bureau's Employment and Pay Rolls Division.

ployees studied. In three of the occupations (cashiers, chambermaids and linen-room women) women are employed almost exclusively, whereas in the other two (general clerks and housemen) male workers are predominant.

Data presented in this article were obtained by trained field representatives of the Bureau from pay rolls and other hotel records. Standard uniform occupational descriptions were used in the classification of workers in all establishments, to assure comparability from one hotel to another.

The data collected represent straight-time hourly earnings, exclusive of premium pay for overtime or night work. They do not include the value of free meals or rooms furnished in some cases by the employer.² In general, the provision of free rooms was confined principally to general clerks in the smaller hotels, but some workers in all occupations received one or two free meals per day.

Both union and nonunion establishments were included among the hotels studied. About two-fifths of the hotels had collective-bargaining agreements with labor unions. On the whole, unionization was found to be more extensive in the regions where the largest cities are situated, and within these cities there was a tendency for unionization to be more prevalent in the larger hotels. Consequently, the proportion of employees covered by agreements was higher than the proportion of unionized establishments.

In the South practically none of the establishments were unionized. Similarly, no unionization was found in the Mountain States. In the Pacific Coast, Midwestern, and Eastern cities, union agreements were encountered in from two-fifths to less than half of the establishments studied.

Hourly Wage Rates

Of the five occupations studied, male general clerks received the highest wage rates in the spring of 1943. Wage rates of female cashiers were generally somewhat below those of general clerks but higher than the rates of housemen, chambermaids or linen-room women. Chambermaids, numerically by far the most important occupation of the five, received the lowest rates.

TABLE 1.—Median City Average Hourly Earnings¹ in Selected Occupations in Year-Round Hotels in 72 Cities, Spring and Summer of 1943

Region and size of city	Number of cities	Cashiers, female	Chambermaids, female	General clerks, male	Housemen	Linen-room women
All cities.....	72	\$0.490	\$0.335	\$0.560	\$0.390	\$0.370
Region:						
East.....	20	.535	.370	.640	.435	.405
South.....	20	.480	.210	.500	.270	.300
Middle West.....	25	.485	.350	.515	.400	.370
Mountain and Pacific.....	7	.670	.410	.640	.490	.480
Size of city:						
Cities of 500,000 and over.....	13	.555	.370	.580	.440	.420
Cities of 200,000 but less than 500,000.....	19	.490	.300	.555	.360	.350
Cities of 100,000 but less than 200,000.....	40	.480	.315	.540	.370	.350

¹ Excludes tips, value of free meals or rooms, and premium pay for overtime or night work.

² In this respect the data presented for Boston are an exception, the value of meals and lodging provided by certain employers being included in the figures given. The chief effect of this inclusion is to increase slightly the rates shown for chambermaids and housemen.

Median city average hourly earnings for the five occupations are presented in table 1. These median averages were derived from a simple array of individual city averages for each occupation. Although no attempt has been made to assign different weights to each city, the figures are useful for purposes of rough comparison. Average rates in the median city were 56 cents for general clerks; 49 cents for cashiers; 39 cents for housemen; 37 cents for linen-room women; and 33.5 cents for chambermaids.

Wage rates in the hotel industry may be seen to follow the regional pattern that is apparent in other industries; they are generally highest in the Mountain and Pacific region and lowest in the South. It is significant, however, that the differences in wage rates between the South and other regions are not so pronounced in the two office occupations as in the three service occupations. Wage rates in the East are next in level below those in the Mountain and Pacific Coast region,

TABLE 2.—Average Straight-Time Hourly Earnings¹ in Selected Occupa

Region and city	Cashiers, female			Chambermaids, female		
	General average	Lowest establishment average	Highest establishment average	General average	Lowest establishment average	Highest establishment average
<i>East</i>						
Cities of 500,000 and over:						
Baltimore, Md.	(7)	(7)	(7)	\$0.24	\$0.20	\$0.29
Boston, Mass.	\$0.54	\$0.43	\$0.66	.39	.31	.41
Buffalo, N. Y.	.53	.49	.56	.37	.33	.46
Philadelphia, Pa.				.33	.24	.40
Pittsburgh, Pa.	.59	.45	.65	.36	.29	.40
Washington, D. C.	.64	.48	.74	.37	.31	.43
Cities of 200,000 but less than 500,000:						
Providence, R. I.	.49	(7)	(7)	.39	.30	.48
Rochester, N. Y.	.47	.46	.47	.38	.33	.44
Syracuse, N. Y.				.40	.34	.40
Cities of 100,000 but less than 200,000:						
Albany, N. Y.	.49	.46	.54	.36	.35	.37
Bridgeport, Conn.	.58	(7)	(7)	.41	.40	.43
Erie, Pa.	(7)	(7)	(7)	.38	.27	.40
Hartford, Conn.	(7)	(7)	(7)	.39	.23	.57
New Haven, Conn.	.54	(7)	(7)	.31	.31	.33
Reading, Pa.	(7)	(7)	(7)	.27	.22	.31
Scranton-Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	.41	(7)	(7)	.25	.21	.33
Springfield, Mass.	.54	(7)	(7)	.37	.35	.38
Trenton, N. J.	(7)	(7)	(7)	.34	.28	.41
Utica, N. Y.	.50	(7)	(7)	.37	.33	.44
Worcester, Mass.	(7)	(7)	(7)	.32	.26	.37
<i>South</i>						
Cities of 200,000 but less than 500,000:						
Atlanta, Ga.	.51	(7)	(7)	.17	.14	.21
Birmingham, Ala.	.44	.37	.52	.17	.13	.18
Dallas, Tex.	.43	.34	.48	.23	.18	.30
Houston, Tex.	.56	.43	.62	.21	.18	.24
Louisville, Ky.	.49	.38	.56	.31	.30	.37
Memphis, Tenn.	.49	.36	.58	.16	.14	.25
New Orleans, La.	.46	.42	.49	.19	.16	.21
San Antonio, Tex.	.48	.45	.53	.23	.18	.26
Cities of 100,000 but less than 200,000:						
Charlotte, N. C.	.53	(7)	(7)	.17	.14	.26
Chattanooga, Tenn.	.46	.32	.51	.16	.08	.15
Fort Worth, Tex.	.46	.43	.50	.23	.16	.28
Jacksonville, Fla.	.58	.33	.41	.21	.13	.40
Knoxville, Tenn.				.14	.11	.17
Miami, Fla.	.55	.46	.73	.29	.25	.38
Nashville, Tenn.	.37	.29	.51	.16	.13	.33
Norfolk, Va.	(7)	(7)	(7)	.24	.21	.30
Oklahoma City, Okla.	.44	.26	.58	.22	.18	.26

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Average Straight-Time Hourly Earnings¹ in Selected Occupations

Region and city	Cashiers, female			Chambermaids, female		
	General average	Lowest establishment average	Highest establishment average	General average	Lowest establishment average	Highest establishment average
<i>South—Continued</i>						
Cities of 100,000 but less than 200,000—Con.						
Richmond, Va.	\$0.49	\$0.44	\$0.55	\$0.24	\$0.19	\$0.32
Tampa, Fla.				.24	.22	.24
Tulsa, Okla.	.48	(?)	(?)	.21	.16	.24
<i>Middle West</i>						
Cities of 500,000 and over:						
Chicago, Ill.	.57	.53	.82	.35	.22	.44
Cleveland, Ohio	.54	.44	.60	.37	.33	.44
Detroit, Mich.	.60	.50	.73	.41	.29	.44
Milwaukee, Wis.	.44	.42	.48	.39	.26	.44
St. Louis, Mo.	.54	.48	.58	.27	.14	.34
Cities of 200,000 but less than 500,000						
Cincinnati, Ohio	.52	.40	.50	.39	.28	.40
Columbus, Ohio	.53	(?)	(?)	.30	.28	.34
Indianapolis, Ind.				.28	.19	.36
Kansas City, Mo.	.47	.41	.50	.27	.21	.33
Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minn.	.47	.39	.56	.44	.24	.46
Toledo, Ohio	.50	.47	.52	.39	.28	.40
Cities of 100,000 but less than 200,000:						
Akron, Ohio	(?)	(?)	(?)	.38	.34	.41
Canton, Ohio	.45	(?)	(?)	.35	.31	.45
Dayton, Ohio	.57	.50	.60	.39	.38	.41
Des Moines, Iowa	.44	(?)	(?)	.31	.26	.36
Duluth, Minn.	(?)	(?)	(?)	.34	.31	.41
Flint, Mich.				.38	.32	.42
Fort Wayne, Ind.	.43	.36	.48	.33	.26	.41
Gary, Ind.	(?)	(?)	(?)	.35	.29	.40
Grand Rapids, Mich.				.28	.26	.30
Omaha, Neb.				.25	.22	.29
Peoria, Ill.	.37	(?)	(?)	.30	.28	.31
South Bend, Ind.	.43	(?)	(?)	.34	.29	.41
Wichita, Kans.				.29	.26	.37
Youngstown, Ohio	(?)	(?)	(?)	.36	.26	.38
<i>Mountain and Pacific</i>						
Cities of 500,000 and over:						
Los Angeles, Calif.				.41	.14	.50
San Francisco, Calif.	.67	.64	.72	.49	.26	.63
Cities of 200,000 but less than 500,000:						
Denver, Colo.	.46	.41	.49	.37	.25	.54
Portland, Oreg.	.75	.58	.99	.49	.42	.53
Cities of 100,000 but less than 200,000:						
Sacramento, Calif.	(?)	(?)	(?)	.40	.35	.43
Salt Lake City, Utah	.52	.43	.55	.39	.31	.42
San Diego, Calif.	.67	(?)	(?)	.50	.41	.63

¹ Excludes tips, value of free meals or rooms, and premium pay for overtime or night work.

Salary Increases Under Wage-Stabilization Program

SALARY increases allowed under the Government's wage-stabilization program during the period October 29, 1942–March 1, 1944, on applications to the Bureau of Internal Revenue, averaged 14.2 percent and affected 206,685 employees. By far the greatest number of these workers (104,525) were in the \$2,400–\$3,999 salary range. The lowest-paid group, those earning less than \$2,400 per year, received the largest percentage increases averaging 19.6 percent. Among the grounds recognized for approving salary adjustments, individual promotions resulted in the largest increases, averaging 20.4 percent

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Region and city	General clerks, male			Housemen, male			Linen-room women		
	General average	Lowest establishment average	Highest establishment average	General average	Lowest establishment average	Highest establishment average	General average	Lowest establishment average	Highest establishment average
<i>South—Continued</i>									
Cities of 100,000 but less than 200,000:									
Richmond, Va.	\$0.47	\$0.34	\$0.68	\$0.20	\$0.16	\$0.38	\$0.25	\$0.21	\$0.47
Tampa, Fla.	.43	.26	.64	.28	.13	.40	.27	.21	.30
Tulsa, Okla.				.28	.11	.38	.28	.27	.29
<i>Middle West</i>									
Cities of 500,000 and over:									
Chicago, Ill.	.47	.19	1.09	.44	.17	.85	.42	.30	.49
Cleveland, Ohio	.44	.36	.82	.45	.31	.77	.38	.29	.65
Detroit, Mich.	.44	.49	.94	.48	.29	.67	.45	.19	.65
Milwaukee, Wis.	.44	.63	.37	.82	.46	.28	.63	.45	.63
St. Louis, Mo.	.31	.41	.14	.57	.40	.30	.54	.13	.41
Cities of 200,000 but less than 500,000:									
Cincinnati, Ohio	.40	.60	.37	.80	.42	.26	.63	.39	.42
Columbus, Ohio	.34	.58	.29	.96	.36	.23	.50	.30	.56
Indianapolis, Ind.	.33	.82	.28	.79	.37	.17	.73	.35	.52
Kansas City, Mo.	.46	.42	.33	.60	.31	.24	.45	.30	.26
Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minn.	.40	.51	.25	.65	.47	.24	.60	.44	.57
Toledo, Ohio	.40	.56	.36	.79	.43	.36	.54	.39	.29
Cities of 100,000 but less than 200,000:									
Akron, Ohio.	.41	.69	.48	.76	.48	.38	.63	.42	.50
Canton, Ohio.	.45	.38	.29	.52	.36	.31	.38	.35	.31
Dayton, Ohio.	.42	.66	.40	.72	.40	.35	.55	.41	.51
Des Moines, Iowa.	.38	.64	.58	.77	.35	.31	.51	.35	.31
Duluth, Minn.	.43	.37	.29	.62	.37	.31	.43	.35	.33
Flint, Mich.	.62	.62	.45	.80	.46	.34	.96	.44	.35
Fort Wayne, Ind.	.41	.52	.30	.80	.33	.22	.53	.35	.32
Gary, Ind.	.40	.47	.21	.63	.43	.41	.47	(1)	(1)
Grand Rapids, Mich.	.39	.41	.23	.49	.31	.17	.50	.35	.29
Omaha, Neb.	.31	.49	.16	.66	.37	.32	.43	.32	.25
Peoria, Ill.	.44	.47	.20	.85	.39	.27	.56	(1)	(1)
South Bend, Ind.	.37	.53	.47	.64	.31	.31	.31	.31	.34
Wichita, Kans.	.36	.48	.38	.57	.44	.37	.52	.37	.35
Youngstown, Ohio.									.42
<i>Mountain and Pacific</i>									
Cities of 500,000 and over:									
Los Angeles, Calif.	.50	.52	.30	.70	.43	.24	.72	.45	.24
San Francisco, Calif.	.63	.72	.53	1.09	.60	.48	.84	.54	.48
Cities of 200,000 but less than 500,000:									
Denver, Colo.	.54	.47	.16	.64	.42	.21	.66	.37	.14
Portland, Oreg.	.53	.70	.44	.91	.55	.43	.66	.56	.41
Cities of 100,000 but less than 200,000:									
Sacramento, Calif.	.45	.65	.53	.78	.48	.41	.65	.48	.39
Salt Lake City, Utah.	.43	.64	.43	.81	.49	.41	.65	.48	.33
San Diego, Calif.	.63	.63	.35	.75	.57	.38	.72	.58	.50

¹Insufficient information for presentation of an average.

for all salary ranges combined. Increases allowed to cover rises in living costs were the smallest of all (11.5 percent).

The foregoing data (summarized in the table on page 146) were contained in a report made to the Senate Committee on Banking and Currency by the Salary Stabilization Unit of the Bureau of Internal Revenue.¹ Pursuant to the provisions of the Stabilization Act of October 2, 1942, the Commissioner of Internal Revenue was, by Executive Order No. 9250, of October 3, 1942, given authority over all adjustments to salaries in excess of \$5,000 per annum and to salaries under

¹ Report on the Activities of the Salary Stabilization Unit, Bureau of Internal Revenue, in Carrying Out the Stabilization Program. Statement of John L. Sullivan, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. Prepared for the Senate Committee on Banking and Currency, April 17, 1944.

that amount received by administrative and professional employees not represented in their relations with their employers by duly recognized or certified labor organizations and not coming within the classification of "agricultural labor."

Approximately 80 percent of the increases requested were approved. However, according to the report, the mere publication of pertinent regulations and rulings undoubtedly deterred many employers from requesting approval of salary increases. Many others have discussed their problems informally with the heads of the regional offices or with the Washington office and abandoned proposed increases that would not have been allowable. Others modified their applications in accordance with informal suggestions of the heads of regional offices.

The report notes the absence of reliable statistics as to salaries paid throughout industry in the United States during the period covered by the stabilization program. However, the Salary Stabilization Unit examined the records of many large and small employers operating under established salary policies, and from these records it appeared that the average salaries paid have not increased beyond the amounts that would have been permitted under the Salary Stabilization Act.

Number of Employees, Percent of Salary Increase Granted, and Basis on Which Increase Was Allowed, October 1942–February 1944

Salary range	All causes		Increased duties and responsibility		Inequity	
	Number of employees	Percent of salary increase	Number of employees	Percent of salary increase	Number of employees	Percent of salary increase
Total.....	283,685	14.2	61,821	14.7	27,102	12.3
Under \$2,400.....	33,217	10.6	9,489	18.6	4,627	18.7
\$2,400–\$3,999.....	104,525	13.8	29,342	14.9	17,669	11.8
\$4,000–\$4,999.....	29,717	12.4	8,330	13.9	2,744	10.1
\$5,000–\$7,499.....	25,117	13.7	8,513	13.8	1,569	12.8
\$7,500–\$9,999.....	6,822	14.3	3,052	13.9	298	12.3
\$10,000–\$19,999.....	6,085	14.9	2,714	14.3	172	16.4
\$20,000–\$34,999.....	960	14.7	322	14.5	23	11.3
\$35,000–\$49,999.....	127	15.4	39	11.3		
\$50,000 and over.....	95	15.4	20	11.1		

Salary range	Cost of living		Merit		Promotion		Incentive payments, prosecution of war, and other	
	Number of employees	Percent of salary increase	Number of employees	Percent of salary increase	Number of employees	Percent of salary increase	Number of employees	Percent of salary increase
Total.....	17,961	11.5	68,231	12.1	19,690	20.4	11,880	18.0
Under \$2,400.....	3,602	14.3	10,396	16.5	5,036	25.9	2,067	15.3
\$2,400–\$3,999.....	10,855	11.2	32,510	12.1	8,905	20.5	5,244	17.3
\$4,000–\$4,999.....	2,032	9.8	12,273	10.6	3,035	17.5	1,303	15.9
\$5,000–\$7,499.....	1,472	8.7	9,083	11.5	2,813	19.7	1,667	18.8
\$7,500–\$9,999.....			2,064	11.4	880	20.7	528	18.3
\$10,000–\$19,999.....			1,576	11.9	803	21.6	820	18.4
\$20,000–\$34,999.....			277	12.9	173	20.4	185	13.7
\$35,000–\$49,999.....			45	13.8	25	20.1	18	21.8
\$50,000 and over.....			7	6.1	20	20.7	48	14.4

¹ Includes approvals granted for positions which were not compensated for prior to October 3, 1942.

After making adjustments to include overtime pay, the Salary Stabilization Unit concluded that the increases allowed resulted in a net salary increase of 14.6 percent, raising the total "take-home money" by \$155,680,797.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to April 1944

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to April 1944.¹ The earnings shown in this table are on a gross basis (i. e., before deductions for social security, income and victory taxes, bond purchases, etc.).

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged \$45.56 in April 1944—96.5 percent above the average in January 1939, 71.0 percent above January 1941, and 17.2 percent above October 1942. Such factors as longer hours of work, merit increases for individual workers, premium pay for overtime worked, changing composition of the labor force within plants, shifts in the distribution of workers among plants and among industries, as well as wage-rate increases, account for the rise in earnings.

Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to April 1944

Month and year	Average weekly earnings			Average hourly earnings			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings ¹			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings weighted by January 1939 employment ²		
	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1939: Jan.....	\$23. 19	\$25. 33	\$21. 57	\$0. 632	\$0. 696	\$0. 583	\$0. 623	\$0. 688	\$0. 574	\$0. 623	\$0. 688	\$0. 574
1940: Jan.....	24. 56	27. 39	22. 01	. 655	. 717	. 598	. 644	. 703	. 589	. 635	. 697	. 589
1941: Jan.....	26. 64	30. 48	22. 75	. 683	. 749	. 610	. 664	. 722	. 601	. 648	. 711	. 600
1942: Jan.....	33. 40	38. 98	26. 97	. 801	. 890	. 688	. 762	. 835	. 670	. 729	. 810	. 667
July.....	36. 43	42. 61	28. 94	. 856	. 949	. 725	. 809	. 885	. 701	. 759	. 846	. 694
Oct.....	38. 89	45. 31	30. 66	. 893	. 990	. 751	. 839	. 919	. 723	. 782	. 869	. 716
1943: Jan.....	40. 62	46. 68	32. 10	. 919	1. 017	. 768	. 859	. 941	. 733	. 794	. 886	. 724
Apr.....	42. 48	48. 67	33. 58	. 944	1. 040	. 790	. 878	. 957	. 751	. 808	. 897	. 741
July.....	42. 76	48. 76	34. 01	. 963	1. 060	. 806	. 899	. 981	. 766	. 823	. 919	. 750
Oct.....	44. 86	51. 26	35. 18	. 988	1. 086	. 824	. 916	. 997	. 781	. 836	. 929	. 765
Dec.....	44. 58	50. 50	35. 61	. 995	1. 093	. 832	. 927	1. 011	. 788	. 846	. 942	. 773
1944: Jan.....	45. 29	51. 21	36. 03	1. 002	1. 099	. 838	. 931	1. 013	. 793	. 850	. 945	. 778
Feb.....	45. 47	51. 40	36. 32	1. 003	1. 100	. 842	. 931	1. 013	. 795	. 851	. 944	. 781
Mar. ³	45. 63	51. 53	36. 57	1. 006	1. 102	. 846	. 934	1. 015	. 799	. 854	. 946	. 785
Apr. ³	45. 56	51. 66	36. 17	1. 012	1. 109	. 850	. 942	1. 022	. 806	. 862	. 954	. 792

¹ Average hourly earnings, excluding the effect of premium pay for overtime.

² Average hourly earnings, excluding premium pay for overtime, weighted by man-hours of employment in the major divisions of the manufacturing industry for January 1939.

³ Preliminary.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 101.2 cents in April 1944—60.1 percent above the average in January 1939, 48.2 percent above January 1941, and 13.3 percent above October 1942.

Straight-time average hourly earnings, as shown in columns 7 to 9, are estimated to exclude premium pay at time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. The effect of extra pay for work on supplementary shifts and on holidays is included. For all manufacturing, the straight-

¹ Compare Trends in Factory Wages, 1939-43, Monthly Labor Review, November 1943 (pp. 869-884), especially table 4 (p. 879). For detailed data regarding weekly earnings, see Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, April 1944, table 6 (p. 210), of this issue.

time average in April 1944 was 94.2 cents per hour; this was 51.2 percent higher than in January 1939, 41.9 percent above January 1941, and 12.3 percent above October 1942.

The shift of workers from relatively low-wage to relatively high-wage industries since 1939 would have raised the average earnings of factory workers, even if no other influences had been present. The effects of such interindustry shifts have been eliminated from the averages shown in columns 10 to 12 of the table. If employment had been distributed between industries as it was in January 1939, the straight-time hourly earnings of factory workers would have averaged 86.2 cents in April 1944, or 38.4 percent above the corresponding average in January 1939, 33.0 percent above January 1941, and 10.2 percent above October 1942. Between March 1944 and April 1944 the rise in straight-time hourly earnings, after eliminating the influence of shifting employment, amounted to nine-tenths of 1 percent. Even this latter series of averages exaggerates the rise in wage rates, because it includes the influence of interplant shifts of employment, merit increases for individual workers, and premium rates for work on extra shifts and on holidays.



Wartime Changes in Wages and Salaries and Other Income in the United States

THE large increase in employment, especially in high-wage industries, the lengthening of hours, and the increased proportion of overtime at premium rates were major factors in bringing about a rise in total wages and salaries in nonagricultural industries in the United States, from \$43,498,000,000 in 1939 to \$100,545,000,000 in 1943. These factors help to explain also the rise of the average remuneration per employee from \$1,306 in 1939 to \$1,871 in 1943. These developments, together with other changes in national income and gross national product during the period of the war, are discussed in a recent study by the Department of Commerce.¹

Wages and Salaries

The remarkable effect of changes in the number of employees as the major factor in bringing about the rise in aggregate wages and salaries is illustrated (see table 1) by the group of industries classified as transportation equipment (except automobiles). The aggregate in this group of industries rose from \$313,000,000 in 1939 to \$8,965,000,000 in 1943. The average salary-wage in this group of industries rose from \$1,647 in 1939 to \$2,829 in 1943, an increase of 71.8 percent. The Bureau of Labor Statistics' figures of average weekly hours in this group of industries throw light on the effects of hours of work. The average in 1939 was 38.9 hours and in 1943 the average was 47.1 hours. There was only a slight amount of overtime at premium rates in 1939, in contrast to a significant proportion of overtime in 1943. It is apparent, of course, that in the case of this group of industries and in many others the employment, the aggregate earnings, and even the average earnings, were temporarily expanded by wartime demands.

¹ U. S. Department of Commerce, *Survey of Current Business*, April 1944, (pp. 6-16): National Income and National Product in 1943, by Milton Gilbert and George Jassi. The article is available from the Department of Commerce in reprint form.

TABLE 1.—Wages and Salaries and Average Salary-Wage per Employee in Nonagricultural Industries in the United States, 1939-43¹

Item	Wages and salaries (in millions)			Average salary-wage per employee		
	1939	1941	1943	1939	1941	1943
Total, all nonagricultural industries.....	\$43,498	\$59,910	\$100,545	\$1,306	\$1,457	\$1,871
Total, excluding Government.....	37,252	51,687	78,521	1,290	1,434	2,037
Mining, total.....	1,178	1,600	2,039	1,368	1,580	2,178
Anthracite coal.....	120	131	174	1,364	1,409	2,096
Bituminous coal.....	477	708	957	1,220	1,629	2,146
Metal.....	152	223	203	1,567	1,828	2,462
Nonmetallic mining and quarrying.....	106	164	204	1,154	1,402	1,943
Crude petroleum and natural gas.....	324	374	411	1,670	1,764	2,246
Manufacturing, total.....	13,189	21,303	40,736	1,335	1,654	2,363
Food, beverages, and tobacco.....	1,671	2,009	2,775	1,319	1,443	1,876
Food and kindred products.....	1,562	1,905	2,650	1,352	1,468	1,907
Tobacco manufactures.....	89	104	119	918	1,105	1,384
Paper, printing, and publishing.....	1,442	1,743	2,057	1,642	1,818	2,202
Paper and allied products.....	449	638	838	1,403	1,644	2,116
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	993	1,105	1,219	1,780	1,935	2,266
Textiles and leather.....	2,369	3,263	4,292	992	1,187	1,627
Textile-mill products.....	1,116	1,570	2,009	954	1,172	1,607
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	880	1,184	1,686	1,029	1,184	1,638
Leather and leather products.....	373	469	597	1,030	1,244	1,663
Construction materials and furniture.....	1,290	1,891	2,415	1,144	1,299	1,797
Lumber and timber basic products.....	402	688	896	960	1,091	1,613
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	397	559	680	1,134	1,315	1,766
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	461	694	869	1,336	1,556	2,059
Chemicals and petroleum refining.....	912	1,474	2,667	1,640	1,914	2,465
Chemicals and allied products.....	655	1,102	2,103	1,582	1,861	2,382
Products of petroleum and coal.....	257	372	564	1,810	2,090	2,834
Metals, machinery, and transportation equipment.....	4,901	10,117	24,804	1,587	2,005	2,754
Iron and steel and their products.....	1,715	3,045	5,968	1,514	1,881	2,612
Nonferrous metals and products.....	728	748	1,290	1,607	1,811	2,606
Electrical machinery.....	626	966	2,045	1,558	1,872	2,423
Machinery (except electrical).....	1,123	2,359	4,328	1,642	2,089	2,681
Automobiles and automobile equipment.....	797	1,424	2,208	1,729	2,201	3,101
Transportation equipment (except automobiles).....	313	1,575	8,965	1,647	2,181	2,829
Rubber and miscellaneous.....	634	1,016	1,786	1,387	1,600	2,287
Rubber products.....	229	340	555	1,517	1,762	2,413
Miscellaneous industries.....	405	676	1,231	1,324	1,529	2,234
Contract construction.....	1,560	2,753	3,670	1,315	1,680	2,656
Transportation, total.....	3,620	4,392	6,726	1,654	1,777	2,336
Steam railroads, Pullman and express.....	2,000	2,612	3,951	1,876	2,089	2,677
Water transportation.....	416	494	803	1,770	1,810	2,722
Street railways.....	312	283	408	1,733	1,826	2,342
Motor transportation, public warehouses, and other transportation.....	802	1,003	1,564	1,217	1,316	1,783
Power and gas.....	671	772	779	1,766	1,860	2,266
Communication.....	622	711	885	1,563	1,598	1,802
Trade, total.....	7,772	9,824	11,347	1,214	1,324	1,595
Retail.....	5,071	6,365	7,449	1,066	1,132	1,357
Wholesale.....	2,701	3,439	3,898	1,690	1,933	2,399
Finance, total.....	2,246	2,608	2,812	1,581	1,640	1,870
Banking.....	620	709	809	1,867	1,891	2,002
Insurance.....	932	1,017	1,144	1,701	1,775	2,039
Security brokerage and real estate.....	696	782	859	1,284	1,346	1,594
Government, total.....	6,246	8,223	22,024	1,404	1,307	1,450
Federal.....	2,078	3,285	17,423	1,603	1,262	1,453
State, county, local, and public education.....	4,168	4,938	4,601	1,322	1,359	1,517
Service, total.....	4,511	5,267	6,092	932	1,013	1,343
Domestic.....	924	1,141	1,550	964	1,010	1,287
Personal, including lodging places.....	1,040	1,168	1,394	522	581	681
Business, including radio broadcasting.....	483	594	781	1,872	2,063	2,503
Repair (except automobile) and hand trades.....	66	90	165	930	1,111	1,618
Recreation.....	541	616	729	1,605	1,604	1,787
Professional.....	986	1,130	1,390	1,079	1,129	1,352
Nonprofit membership organizations.....	471	558	674	1,510	1,676	1,982
Miscellaneous.....	1,591	2,327	2,775	1,293	1,396	1,679

¹ For source, see footnote 1 (p. 148).

Except in the service industry, average salary-wage is calculated by dividing total salaries and wages by average monthly employment. Because the prevalence of part-time employment in service would seriously affect the level of average earnings, and therefore comparability with other industries if this method were followed, average salary-wage in service is computed on a full-time equivalent basis by dividing salaries and wages paid to full-time employees by the average monthly number of full-time employees.

² Excludes subsistence to members of the armed forces and work-relief wages.

In contrast to the change in such branches of employment as the transportation-equipment group was the comparatively stable condition of wages and salaries in some other groups, as the food and kindred products group. Aggregate wages and salaries in this group rose only from \$1,582,000,000 in 1939 to \$2,656,000,000 in 1943, and the average salary-wage rose from \$1,352 to \$1,907, an increase of 41.1 percent. In addition to the comparatively slight rise in employment, it may be noted that hours of work were relatively stable, the average in 1939 being 40.3 hours and in 1943 only 44.1 hours.

The Department of Commerce estimates of employment are comprehensive. They include casual workers, the armed forces, and those engaged in relief work, which was much more important in 1939 than in 1943. These estimates should not be confused with the Bureau of Labor Statistics series of civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments, which excludes casual workers, relief workers, those engaged in such activities as domestic service, and the personnel of the armed forces. The Department of Commerce uses estimates of the full-time equivalents of part-time workers in the service group of employments. The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not convert part-time employment to full-time equivalents.

Income of Groups Other Than Employees

It is estimated that national income totaled \$70,829,000,000 in 1939 and \$147,927,000,000 in 1943 (table 2). The estimate for 1929 is \$83,326,000,000. Salaries and wages (including agriculture, which was excluded from the estimates of table 1) totaled \$44,236,000,000 in 1939 and \$102,048,000,000 in 1943. The total compensation of employees (including "total supplements to salaries and wages") amounted in 1939 to \$48,075,000,000, and in 1943 to \$105,249,000,000.

The national income other than the total compensation of employees rose from \$22,754,000,000 in 1939 to \$42,678,000,000 in 1943, an increase of 88 percent. The net income of incorporated business shows a much larger increase, namely, 111 percent. A considerable part of the increase was in the form of corporate savings, which, however, remain the property of the owners of corporate business. Savings are not included by the Department of Commerce in its estimates of income payments to individuals except when savings are "negative." When business enterprises pay out more income than is currently produced (when savings become "negative"), income payments exceed the national income. The net income of proprietors other than owners of incorporated business rose 114 percent, the increase for agriculture being 187 percent, and for other proprietors of this group, 69 percent. Increases in the amount of income in the form of dividends, interest, and net rents and royalties were considerable but were much smaller than those in the other major forms of income.

A comparison of changes in the aggregate incomes of the various types of income recipients requires consideration of the comparative changes in the number of recipients. The increase in the number of

persons receiving wages and salaries was naturally greatly in excess of the increase in the numbers receiving other types of income. Exact figures are of course not available, but in connection with some types of income the numbers receiving such income have apparently declined. The number of farm family workers, for example, fell from 8,145,000 in 1939 to 7,857,000 in 1943. In many forms of enterprise, such as trade and service industries, there has been a tendency for self-employed persons to give up their enterprises temporarily or to contract the scope of their operations because of the demand for workers in war industries and because of the requirements of the armed forces.

TABLE 2.—National Income in the United States, by Distributive Shares, 1929–43¹

Type of share	Income (in millions)					
	1929	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
Total national income	\$53,326	\$70,829	\$77,574	\$96,857	\$121,568	\$147,927
Total compensation of employees	53,066	48,075	52,288	64,489	83,771	105,249
Total salaries and wages	52,556	44,236	48,622	60,810	80,477	102,048
Salaries and wages in private industry	47,546	37,990	41,851	52,587	66,921	80,024
Salaries and wages in governmental agencies ²	5,010	6,246	6,771	8,223	13,556	22,024
Total supplements to salaries and wages	510	3,839	3,666	3,679	3,294	3,201
Work-relief wages ³		1,870	1,577	1,213	586	58
Social Security contributions of employers ⁴		1,286	1,358	1,686	1,953	2,288
Other labor income ⁵	510	683	731	780	755	855
Net income of incorporated business	7,194	4,228	5,844	8,519	8,392	8,938
Dividends	5,944	3,806	4,046	4,511	3,969	4,029
Corporate savings	1,250	422	1,798	4,008	4,423	4,909
Net income of proprietors ⁶	15,630	11,151	11,989	15,838	20,574	25,565
Agriculture	5,174	4,201	4,362	6,278	9,703	12,301
Other	8,456	6,880	7,627	9,560	10,871	11,592
Interest	5,867	5,085	5,129	5,250	5,472	6,041
Net rents and royalties	3,569	2,290	2,324	2,761	3,359	3,806
Addendum: Net income of incorporated business before Federal taxes	8,387	5,460	8,388	15,721	19,869	23,671

¹ For source, see footnote 1 (p. 148).

² Excludes subsistence to members of the armed forces.

³ Includes pay rolls and maintenance of Civilian Conservation Corps enrollees and pay rolls of Civil Works Administration, Federal Emergency Relief Administration, and the Federal Works Program projects plus administrative pay rolls outside of Washington, D. C., for all except the Federal Works Program. Area office employees and their pay rolls under the Federal Works Program are included with the regular Federal Government employment and pay-roll figures.

⁴ Includes contributions to Railroad Retirement and Railroad Unemployment Compensation Funds.

⁵ Employer contributions to pension funds under private plans and under systems for Government employees, compensation for industrial injuries, etc.

⁶ Includes owners' remuneration for personal services and capital.

Gross National Product and War Expenditures

The Department of Commerce makes estimates of gross national product as well as of national income. Gross national product is defined as "the total value of currently produced goods and services flowing to Government, to businesses for gross capital formation, and to consumers." The components of the gross national product, as distinguished from the national income, are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Relation of Gross National Product to National Income in the United States, 1939–43*¹
[In billions]

Item	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943			
					Year	First quarter	Second quarter	Third quarter
National income.....	\$70.8	\$77.6	\$96.9	\$121.6	\$147.9	\$34.4	\$36.4	\$37.5
Business tax and nontax liabilities.....	10.4	12.4	18.5	23.6	27.7	6.6	6.9	7.0
Depreciation and depletion charges.....	6.2	6.4	7.0	7.7	8.2	2.0	2.1	2.1
Other business reserves.....	.8	.7	.8	.8	.8	.2	.2	.2
Capital outlay charged to current expense.....	.7	.9	1.3	1.1	.8	.2	.2	.2
Inventory revaluation adjustment.....	—4	—4	—3.2	—2.1	—2	—1	(7)	—1
Adjustment for discrepancies.....	0	—4	—1.7	—6	1.2	—4	1.0	.9
Gross national product or expenditure.....	88.6	97.1	119.6	152.1	186.5	43.0	46.7	47.8

¹ For source, see footnote 1 (p. 148). Items do not necessarily add to totals, because of rounding of figures.

² Less than \$50,000,000.

The national income is defined as the net value of output in the form of earnings paid or accruing to the factors of production. The two main items that are in gross national product and not in national income are indirect taxes (the second item in table 3) and charges for depreciation and depletion (the third item).

The relationship of war expenditures to gross national product is shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Gross National Product and War Expenditures in the United States, 1939–43*
(Seasonally Adjusted Annual Rates)¹

Period	Gross national product (in billions)	War expenditures (in billions)	War expenditures as percent of gross national product
1939.....	\$88.6	\$1.4	1
1940.....	97.1	2.8	3
1941.....	119.6	12.8	11
1942.....	152.1	50.3	33
1943.....	186.5	81.3	44
1942:			
First quarter.....	134.3	28.7	21
Second quarter.....	146.3	43.2	29
Third quarter.....	158.2	59.1	37
Fourth quarter.....	169.4	70.3	41
1943:			
First quarter.....	179.8	75.6	42
Second quarter.....	185.0	82.9	45
Third quarter.....	189.3	82.6	43
Fourth quarter.....	191.7	84.0	44

¹ For source, see footnote 1 (p. 148).

The remarkable degree of conversion of the national economy to a war basis is indicated by the estimates of war expenditures as 2 percent of the gross national product in 1939, 11 percent in 1941, 21 percent in the first quarter of 1942, and 44 percent in 1943.

Consumer Expenditures

An extremely significant part of the study here summarized relates to consumer expenditures for goods and services (table 5). The estimates of total expenditures, when converted to 1939 dollars, rose from \$61,700,000,000 in 1939 to \$70,800,000,000 in 1943. Increases occurred, it will be noted, in all of the 9 groups of goods and services except gasoline and oil, automobiles and parts, and furniture, furnishings, and household equipment.

TABLE 5.—Consumer Expenditures for Goods and Services in the United States, in 1939 Dollars, 1939-43¹

Item	Consumer expenditures (in billions)				
	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
Total goods and services.....	\$61.7	\$64.9	\$69.7	\$68.8	\$70.8
Food.....	18.1	18.7	19.8	21.2	21.8
Clothing.....	6.8	7.0	7.7	8.2	9.4
Tobacco.....	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.5
Gasoline and oil.....	2.1	2.2	2.4	1.8	1.4
Other nondurable goods.....	3.8	4.1	4.6	4.8	5.5
Furniture, furnishings and household equipment.....	3.0	3.3	4.0	3.3	2.9
Automobiles and parts.....	2.3	2.8	2.9	.4	.3
Other durable goods.....	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.6
Services.....	22.7	23.8	24.8	25.4	25.4

¹ For source, see footnote 1 (p. 148).

The authors of the study emphasize the difficulty of correcting expenditures for price changes under present conditions and state that "it is not possible to take account in these measurements of all quality changes, nor of the fact that all price quotations may not be representative, nor of the loss of consumer satisfaction which follows from greatly restricted freedom of choice." In spite of these difficulties and shortcomings, the view is expressed that "the general impression of a high over-all level of real consumption which the figures show is not misleading." It is pointed out that of course the experience of many individuals does not square with the conclusion suggested by the over-all statistics.

The maintenance of relatively high levels of real consumption when almost one-half of the gross national product is being used for war is of utmost significance as an indication of the productive capacity of the country. It is significant also in raising the question of how to make use of this productive capacity after the war for the raising of levels of real consumption.

The year 1943 marked the beginning of what is described as "a fairly static phase" of the country's war economy.

By the end of the year it was apparent that the economic situation had reached a fairly static phase, with the flow of output and income pressing against the limits of the Nation's production potential and with the structure of production rigidly determined by the requirements of the war program. There had been established an economic pattern which would prevail in its broader outlines for the duration of the full-scale war effort, barring, of course, radical changes in military requirements or in the level of prices.



Wartime Hours and Earnings in the United States and Great Britain

THE average workweek in Great Britain before the war was much longer than in the United States, but the comparatively large wartime increases in the United States reduced the differences in hours to small proportions, especially in war industries. Average hourly earnings in Great Britain rose much more than in the United States. The combined effect of a smaller increase in hours and a larger increase in hourly earnings in Great Britain than in the United States was to produce a similarity in trends of average weekly earnings. The rise

was slightly greater in Great Britain than in the United States, but the increase in cost of living was somewhat larger in Great Britain, the change in average real weekly earnings in the two countries being almost identical.

General Changes in Comparable Industries

Hours of work in Great Britain in a large group of manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries combined rose from 46.4 hours per week in October 1938 to 50.5 hours in July 1943, an increase of 4.1 hours per week or 8.8 percent (table 1). This change in hours in Great Britain was much smaller than the rise in a comparable group of industries in the United States, but hours in October 1938 were still at a much lower level in the United States than in Great Britain. The average in the United States in October 1938 was 37.2 hours, and in July 1943, 45.3 hours, an increase of 8.1 hours or 21.8 percent.

Average weekly earnings in the same group of industries in Great Britain rose, during the same period, from 55s. 9d. to 99s. 8d.,¹ an increase of 78.8 percent. The change in the United States was in similar proportion, the average rising from \$26.21 in October 1938 to \$46.31 in July 1943, or 76.7 percent.

Hourly earnings in these industries in Great Britain in October 1938 averaged 14.4d., and in July 1943, 23.7d., an increase of 64.6 percent. In the United States, hourly earnings in the same group of industries averaged \$0.706 in October 1938, and \$1.022 in July 1943, the increase being 44.8 percent.²

TABLE 1.—Average Weekly Hours and Earnings and Average Hourly Earnings in United States and Great Britain¹ in Comparable Industries, October 1938 and July 1943²

Item	October 1938 (using January 1939 employment composition, United States)	July 1943, using—			
		July 1943 employment composition, United States		January 1939 employment composition, United States	
		Number or amount	Percent of increase from October 1938	Number or amount	Percent of increase from October 1938
Average weekly hours:					
United States.....	37.2	45.3	21.8	43.2	16.1
Great Britain.....	46.4	50.5	8.8	40.6	6.9
Average weekly earnings:					
United States.....	\$26.21	\$46.31	76.7	\$41.48	58.3
Great Britain.....	55s. 9d.	99s. 8d.	78.8	90s. 0d.	61.4
Average hourly earnings:					
United States.....	\$0.706	\$1.022	44.8	\$0.950	34.6
Great Britain.....	14.4d.	23.7d.	64.6	21.7d.	50.7

¹ For British data, see Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette, February 1944, pp. 26-28.

² The average weekly hours and average weekly earnings for the several industries in both countries were combined by the use of United States employment weights for the purpose of eliminating, as far as practicable, the effects of differences in the composition of employment in the two countries. The average hourly earnings for both countries were combined, for the same purpose, by use of man-hour weights (employment in the United States times weekly hours in the given country). The July 1943 averages were also combined for both countries by the use of weights for January 1939 for the purpose of eliminating the effects on the general averages of interindustry shifts in employment and hours.

¹ The exchange rate of the pound (20 shillings) in 1938 was approximately the mint par rate of \$4.87. The war caused downward fluctuations, but it should be noted that the international exchange rate, especially under war conditions, is not a measure of the comparative value of the pound and the dollar in the purchase of goods and services consumed by wage earners in the two countries.

² The basic data from which these averages for Great Britain were computed were published by the Ministry of Labor of Great Britain in the Ministry of Labor Gazette, February 1944 (pp. 26-35). Employment figures were not published, but industries broadly comparable with industries in the United States were selected for comparison, and employment figures for the United States were used in computing the combined averages for each country. This procedure has advantages in affording a more exact comparison of the effects of changes in the separate industry averages on the general averages. The results indicate what would have been the changes in the averages of the combined industries if the employment in British industries had been the same as the employment in the comparable industries in the United States in each of the two periods or if the percentage distributions of employment had been similar.

The above comparisons of percentage changes in average earnings are more significant than are the comparisons of actual levels of earnings, because of the inadequacy of any available method of converting earnings in the two countries to a common denominator. The use of the international exchange rate is particularly inadequate under such abnormal conditions of international exchange as have prevailed in recent years, even before the outbreak of war. The exchange rate, even insofar as it is determined by comparative prices, is primarily affected by the prices of goods and services entering into international exchange as distinguished from the goods and services purchased by wage earners. During the period of the war, the difficulties of comparing the absolute levels of wages are of course greatly increased by the wartime problems and policies of supply, price control, and rationing.

The above averages were affected not only by the changes in the averages of the several industries, but also by the shift of workers from industry to industry. The industries that in October 1938 afforded comparatively high average earnings, especially average hourly earnings, expanded to a greater extent than did the industries with comparatively low earnings. A measure of the changes in the general averages in the combined industries that eliminates the effects of interindustry shifts in employment is obtainable by assuming that employment (man-hours in the case of average hourly earnings) underwent no change during the period under consideration.

When the separate industry averages of weekly hours are combined by the use of base-period employment weights (table 1), the general average of hours in Great Britain increased 6.9 percent, instead of 8.8 percent when current weights are used, and in the United States, 16.1 percent instead of 21.8 percent. The changes in hours in the separate industries in Great Britain were comparatively slight and were less varied than were the changes in the separate industries in the United States.

When the average weekly earnings of the separate industries are combined by base-period employment weights, the general average of weekly earnings in Great Britain rose 61.4 percent, instead of 78.8 percent, and in the United States, 58.3 percent instead of 76.7 percent. The hours of work in Great Britain increased, as is stated above, to a much smaller extent than did hours of work in the United States; but average hourly earnings (the other factor affecting average weekly earnings) increased to a much greater extent in the separate industries in Great Britain than in the United States.

When average hourly earnings in the separate industries are combined by the use of base-period man-hour weights, the general average of hourly earnings in Great Britain rose 50.7 percent, instead of 64.6 percent, and in the United States, 34.6 instead of 44.8 percent.

Information regarding average hours and earnings in Great Britain is available for a considerable number of industries in addition to those which are included in the group of comparable industries.³ The workweek in the larger combination of industries in October 1938 averaged 46.5 hours as compared with 46.4 hours in the smaller comparable group of industries. The July 1943 average was 50.0

³ Detailed figures for all of the industries combined (including the comparable industries and the additional industries for which comparable figures in the United States are not available) are given in the Ministry of Labor Gazette, February 1944 (pp. 26-35).

hours as compared with 50.5 hours in the comparable group of industries. Weekly earnings in the larger combination of industries in October 1938 averaged 53s. 3d., and in July 1943, 93s. 7d. The averages in the group of comparable industries were 55s. 9d. in October 1938, and 99s. 8d. in July 1943. Hourly earnings in the larger combination of industries averaged 1s. 10.5d. in July 1943, the increase between October 1939 and July 1943 being 63 percent. The July 1943 average in the group of comparable industries was 1s. 11.7d., and the increase between October 1938 and July 1943 was 65 percent. Major industries not included in the comparable group are some of those in clothing, food, and woodworking, in which average earnings in both countries are below the general averages.

The importance of the group of comparable industries as compared with the larger combination of industries is indicated broadly by the relative number of insured persons in July 1938. The number in the comparable industries was about 5,500,000, and the number in the additional industries for which average hours and hourly earnings are available was less than 3,000,000, although certain employments not covered by the statistics of insured persons (as government industrial establishments) are also included in the larger combination of industries.

The averages of weekly hours and weekly earnings in British industries are not wholly comparable with the averages of the similar industries in the United States, because of the fact that in the calculation of the British averages women employed as part-time workers in July 1943 were included on the basis of two part-time workers being equal to one full-time worker. This method of calculation raises the averages somewhat above the averages as computed by the method used in the United States, in which no adjustment of this nature is made.

It should be noted also that the July averages of weekly hours and weekly earnings in the United States are slightly below normal because of the July Fourth holiday. In Great Britain, it is probable that the average workweek in some industries is abnormally long in July, as a result of the policy of making as complete use as possible of the long midsummer days in order to counteract the effects, in the winter months, of the extremely short day and the blackout.

Changes in Hourly Earnings and in Basic Wage Rates

In both the United States and Great Britain the increase in average hourly earnings in the combined group of comparable industries was a result of several factors. Among the causes, in addition to changes in wage rates, were the increase in the proportion of workers employed in industries with comparatively high wages, larger man-hour output under piece-rate and other incentive systems, and a rise in the proportion of compensation paid as premium rates for overtime. The increase in average hourly earnings was therefore much larger than the increase in the basic straight-time rate of wages.

The British Ministry of Labor estimates that in the industries covered by the special surveys of hours and earnings (various nonmanufacturing industries and public employments being included) the average rate of wages, exclusive of overtime, was about 30 percent

higher in July 1943 than in October 1938. The British sources of information made possible the elimination of the effects not only of interindustry shifts in employment but also of changes in the proportions of men, boys, women, and girls employed in the different industries and occupations.

An estimate of the change in the basic straight-time wage rate in the United States is not available. The average hourly earnings of factory workers, however, have been adjusted to eliminate premium payments for overtime and the effects of interindustry shifts, but not, as in Great Britain, to eliminate the effects of changes in the proportions of men, boys, women and girls. Assuming that employment and hours in the various industries remained the same as in January 1939, the straight-time hourly earnings of factory workers during the period from January 1939 to July 1943 rose about 32 percent. It is known, however, that the rise of 32 percent was not due wholly to changes in basic straight-time rates of wages. Furthermore, the rise in average hourly earnings in manufacturing industries was significantly larger than that in many of the nonmanufacturing industries comparable with those covered by the British index of wage rates. The available evidence indicates, therefore, a significantly larger rise in basic straight-time rates of wages in Great Britain than in the United States.

Average Hours Per Week

In the choice of industries for inclusion in the group of comparable industries it was recognized that exact comparability is rare. The industries or groups of industries actually included in the comparison are, however, in similar fields of activity and are representative of important branches of the national economies in both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing enterprises.

The average number of hours per week in the separate industries (table 2) ⁴ was greater in July 1943 in Great Britain than in the United States in all except 2 of the 39 industries or groups of industries, namely, navy yards ⁵ and street railways and busses. It will be noted that in most of the industries which may be described as preponderantly war industries the differences in hours in July 1943 in the two countries were comparatively small. The longest average workweek in July 1943 in the United States was in navy yards, the average being 53.2 hours, and in Great Britain, in shipbuilding and boatbuilding, the average being 54.6 hours. The shortest average workweek in July 1943 in the United States was in the hosiery industry, with an average of 37.3 hours, and in Great Britain, in carpets and rugs, with an average of 44.4 hours. The average number of hours worked rose more than 10 percent between October 1938 and July 1943, in 28 of the 39 industries in the United States, but in only 5 of the 39 industries in Great Britain.

⁴ The industry designations in table 2 are not the exact designations used in either the United States or Great Britain but are based primarily on industry designations in the United States. The exact industry titles are given in table 4.

⁵ Navy yards only were included in the coverage for the United States, whereas "government industrial establishments" were included in the coverage for Great Britain. This particular classification is not fully comparable, but navy yards in the United States employed most of the workers who could be classified under "government industrial establishments."

TABLE 2.—Average Hours Per Week in Comparable Industries in United States and Great Britain, July 1943, and Changes from October 1938 to July 1943¹

Industry ²	Average hours per week in July 1943		Excess of hours in Great Britain over those in United States, July 1943	Increase from October 1938 to July 1943—			
				In number of hours		In percentage	
	United States	Great Britain		United States	Great Britain	United States	Great Britain
1. Navy yards.....	53.2	50.9	-2.3	14.2	1.8	36	4
2. Street railways and busses.....	49.4	49.1	-.3	5.0	.4	11	1
3. Heating equipment and fittings.....	48.3	51.9	3.6	12.0	2.8	33	6
4. Machinery, except electrical, and locomotives.....	48.1	51.7	3.6	11.2	3.7	30	8
5. Shipbuilding and boatbuilding.....	47.9	54.6	6.7	11.0	9.7	30	22
6. Flour.....	47.8	49.4	1.6	2.6	3.3	6	7
7. Wirework.....	47.6	50.3	2.7	9.7	2.1	26	4
8. Nonferrous metals: Smelting, refin- ing, alloying, etc.....	46.9	51.5	4.6	9.4	3.5	25-	7
9. Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	46.3	48.7	2.4	5.4	2.7	13	6
10. Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	46.3	49.5	3.2	6.2	2.0	15	4
11. Electrical machinery (group).....	46.2	50.7	4.5	9.2	3.2	25	7
12. Chemicals and explosives.....	46.1	48.8	2.7	6.5	1.4	16	3
13. Cutlery and edge tools.....	46.0	48.2	2.2	6.7	2.5	17	5
14. Aircraft, aircraft engines, and auto- mobiles.....	45.8	51.4	5.6	7.9	4.0	21	8
15. Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	45.7	50.4	4.7	10.7	3.9	31	8
16. Baking.....	44.9	49.4	4.5	2.9	1.1	7	2
17. Clocks, watches, jewelry, and silver- ware.....	44.4	48.0	3.6	5.3	1.1	14	3
18. Dyeing and cleaning.....	44.1	46.5	2.4	2.0	2.3	5	5
19. Rubber products (group).....	44.1	51.0	6.9	8.0	3.0	22	6
20. Laundries.....	43.9	45.7	1.8	2.5	4.6	6	11
21. Blast furnaces, steel works, and roll- ing mills.....	43.9	51.4	7.5	12.0	5.7	38	12
22. Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	43.7	49.6	5.9	4.5	4.0	11	9
23. Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.....	43.5	50.5	7.0	8.8	2.7	25	6
24. Rayon and allied products.....	42.7	49.6	6.9	5.7	5.4	15	12
25. Cement.....	42.6	51.3	8.7	4.8	1.4	13	3
26. Carpets and rugs.....	42.2	44.4	2.2	6.2	-2.5	17	-5
27. Tobacco manufactures (group).....	42.1	46.3	4.2	4.9	-.3	13	-1
28. Leather.....	42.0	48.2	6.2	3.5	1.4	9	3
29. Electric light and power.....	42.0	49.9	7.9	2.1	.8	5	2
30. Woolen and worsted manufactures.....	41.3	47.6	6.3	5.7	2.1	16	5
31. Cotton manufactures.....	40.9	49.1	8.2	4.1	3.3	11	7
32. Printing and publishing (group).....	40.2	45.3	5.1	3.0	.8	8	2
33. Confectionery.....	40.2	47.3	7.1	.0	.2	0	(9)
34. Brick and tile.....	40.1	50.4	10.3	1.3	1.2	3	2
35. Glass.....	39.8	47.1	7.3	4.2	1.2	12	3
36. Pottery.....	39.6	46.9	7.3	2.4	2.9	6	7
37. Building construction (private).....	39.0	51.7	12.7	5.2	5.6	15	12
38. Boots and shoes.....	38.3	45.1	6.8	3.7	1.5	11	3
39. Hosiery.....	37.3	46.7	9.4	-.2	.4	-1	1

¹ For British data, see Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette, February 1944 (pp. 26-35).² Arranged in descending order of average hours per week in the United States in July 1943. Short titles are given, based primarily on industry designations in the United States. For full titles, see table 4. Some of the industries are comparable only in respect to major products.³ Increase from January 1939 to July 1943.⁴ Less than half of 1 percent.

Changes in Average Earnings and Cost of Living

The increases in hours of work between October 1938 and July 1943 were larger in Great Britain than in the United States in only 3 of the 39 industries or groups of industries, and only in laundries was there a significantly larger increase. In striking contrast, the increases in average hourly earnings (table 3) were larger in Great Britain than in the United States in all but one (tobacco manufactures) of the 39 industries and groups.

The larger increases in average hours in the United States were more than counterbalanced, in their effects on average weekly earnings, by the smaller increases in average hourly earnings. The in-

creases in weekly earnings in the United States were larger than in Great Britain in only 14 of the 39 industries.

TABLE 3.—Changes in Average Hours and Earnings in Comparable Industries in United States and Great Britain, October 1938 to July 1943¹

Industry ²	Percent of increase, October 1938 to July 1943, in—					
	Average hours per week		Average weekly earnings		Average hourly earnings	
	United States	Great Britain	United States	Great Britain	United States	Great Britain
All 39 industries combined:						
Using current weights.....	21.8	8.8	76.7	78.8	44.8	64.6
Using constant weights.....	16.1	6.9	58.3	61.4	34.6	50.7
1. Navy yards.....	36	4	62	52	19	47
2. Street railways and buses.....	11	1	39	34	24	23
3. Heating equipment and fittings.....	33	6	91	57	43	48
4. Machinery, except electrical, and locomotives.....	30	8	86	13	43	60
5. Shipbuilding and boatbuilding.....	30	22	97	109	52	72
6. Flour.....	6	7	40	61	34	50
7. Wirework.....	26	4	84	65	45	58
8. Nonferrous metals: Smelting, refining, alloying, etc.....	25	7	91	83	53	71
9. Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	13	6	64	56	46	47
10. Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	15	4	53	53	33	46
11. Electrical machinery (group).....	25	7	72	82	37	70
12. Chemicals and explosives.....	16	3	59	60	36	64
13. Cutlery and edge tools.....	17	5	70	90	51	80
14. Aircraft, aircraft engines, and automobiles.....	21	8	54	73	28	60
15. Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	31	8	82	93	39	78
16. Baking.....	7	2	42	67	32	63
17. Clocks, watches, jewelry, and silverware.....	14	2	60	70	41	66
18. Dyeing and cleaning.....	5	5	38	67	34	58
19. Rubber products (group).....	22	6	64	87	35	76
20. Laundries.....	6	11	38	68	31	51
21. Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	28	12	87	60	36	43
22. Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	11	9	51	66	37	52
23. Cars, electric and steam-railroad.....	25	6	88	65	49	56
24. Rayon and allied products.....	15	12	59	65	38	47
25. Cement.....	13	3	47	56	30	52
26. Carpets and rugs.....	17	-5	61	55	38	63
27. Tobacco manufactures (group).....	13	-1	61	29	42	30
28. Leather.....	9	3	52	55	39	50
29. Electric light and power.....	5	2	30	39	23	37
30. Woolen and worsted manufactures.....	16	5	78	64	54	57
31. Cotton manufactures.....	11	7	72	85	54	73
32. Printing and publishing (group).....	18	2	26	31	16	29
33. Confectionery.....	0	(4)	45	77	45	77
34. Brick and tile.....	3	2	49	62	42	61
35. Glass.....	12	3	42	53	27	49
36. Pottery.....	6	7	38	77	32	66
37. Building construction (private).....	15	12	59	57	38	40
38. Boots and shoes.....	11	3	62	56	41	50
39. Hosiery.....	-1	1	28	49	28	48

¹ For British data, see Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette, February 1944 (pp. 26-35).

² Arranged in descending order of average hours per week in the United States in July 1943. Short titles are given, based primarily on industry designations in the United States. For full titles, see table 4. Some of the industries are comparable only in respect to major products.

³ Increase from January 1939 to July 1943.

⁴ Less than half of 1 percent.

The slightly larger increase in average weekly earnings in Great Britain than in the United States in the 39 industries combined was approximately counteracted by a somewhat greater rise in cost of living. The increase in cost of living between October 1938 and July 1943 in Great Britain was about 29 percent, and in the United States, about 24 percent. In view, however, of such international differences as those in rationing and the control of distribution, in problems of supply, and in the area of price control, there are serious limitations in the use of the two indexes to convert money wages into real wages

for the purpose of making international comparisons of changes in real wages.

TABLE 4.—*Exact Designations in United States and Great Britain of Industries Compared in Tables 1 to 3*

United States	Great Britain
1. Navy yards.....	Government industrial establishments.
2. Street railways and busses.....	Tramway and omnibus service, and other road-passenger transport.
3. Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	Heating and ventilating engineering.
4. (a) Machinery, except electrical (group); (b) locomotives.....	General engineering and engineers' iron and steel founding.
5. Shipbuilding and boatbuilding.....	Shipbuilding and repairing.
6. Flour.....	Grain milling.
7. Wirework.....	Wire, wire netting, wire ropes, etc.
8. (a) Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals; (b) alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum.....	Nonferrous-metal manufacture.
9. Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	Stone quarrying and mining.
10. Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	Paint, varnish, red lead, etc.
11. Electrical machinery (group).....	Electrical engineering.
12. (a) Chemicals, not elsewhere classified; (b) explosives and safety fuses.....	Chemicals and explosives.
13. Cutlery and edge tools.....	Hand tools, cutlery, saws, files, etc.
14. (a) Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines; (b) aircraft engines; (c) automobiles.....	Motor-vehicle, cycle, and aircraft (including components) manufacture and repair.
15. Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	Bolts, nuts, screws, rivets, nails, etc.
16. Baking.....	Bread, biscuits, cakes, etc. (firms employing 10 or more workers).
17. (a) Clocks and watches; (b) jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings; (c) silverware and plated ware.....	Watches, clocks, plate, jewelry, etc.
18. Cleaning and dyeing.....	Dyeing, dry cleaning, etc.
19. Rubber products (group).....	Rubber (excluding rubber garments).
20. Power laundries.....	Laundries (firms employing 10 or more workers).
21. Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	Iron puddling, steel smelting, rolling, forging, etc.
22. Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	Textile bleaching, printing, dyeing, finishing, etc.
23. Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.....	Railway carriage, wagon, and tram building and repairing.
24. Rayon and allied products.....	Artificial-silk spinning.
25. Cement.....	Cement, lime, whitening, etc.
26. Carpets and rugs, wool.....	Carpets and rugs.
27. Tobacco manufactures (group).....	Tobacco, cigars, cigarettes, etc.
28. Leather.....	Tanning, currying, and dressing (leather).
29. Electric light and power.....	Electricity supply.
30. Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	Woolen and worsted.
31. Cotton manufactures, except small wares.....	Cotton.
32. Printing, publishing, and allied industries (group).....	Printing, publishing, and bookbinding.
33. Confectionery.....	Cocos, chocolate, and sugar confectionery.
34. Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	Brick, tile, pipe, etc.
35. Glass and glassware.....	Glass and glass-bottle manufacture.
36. Pottery and related products.....	Pottery, earthenware, etc.
37. Building construction (private).....	Building, decorating, etc.
38. Boots and shoes.....	Boot, shoe, and slipper making and repairing (firms employing 10 or more workers).
39. Hosiery.....	Hosiery.

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Cost of Clothing for Moderate-Income Families¹

THE U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics has measured changes in the cost of clothing to city wage earners and clerical workers since 1913. As shown in chart 1, a surprising amount of variation in clothing costs has been crowded into a period of a little more than two decades. Clothing which cost \$100 in 1913 had more than tripled in cost at the peak of the post-war inflation, reaching \$303 in 1920. At the depth of the depression in the early thirties the cost had not returned to the 1913 level—but had dropped to \$122. By April 1944 the relative cost had risen to \$198, 36 percent above the level of August 1939, the month before war broke out in Europe. It would be of interest to analyze these sweeping changes in terms of price movements of individual clothing articles, but data of this kind were not available until 1935.

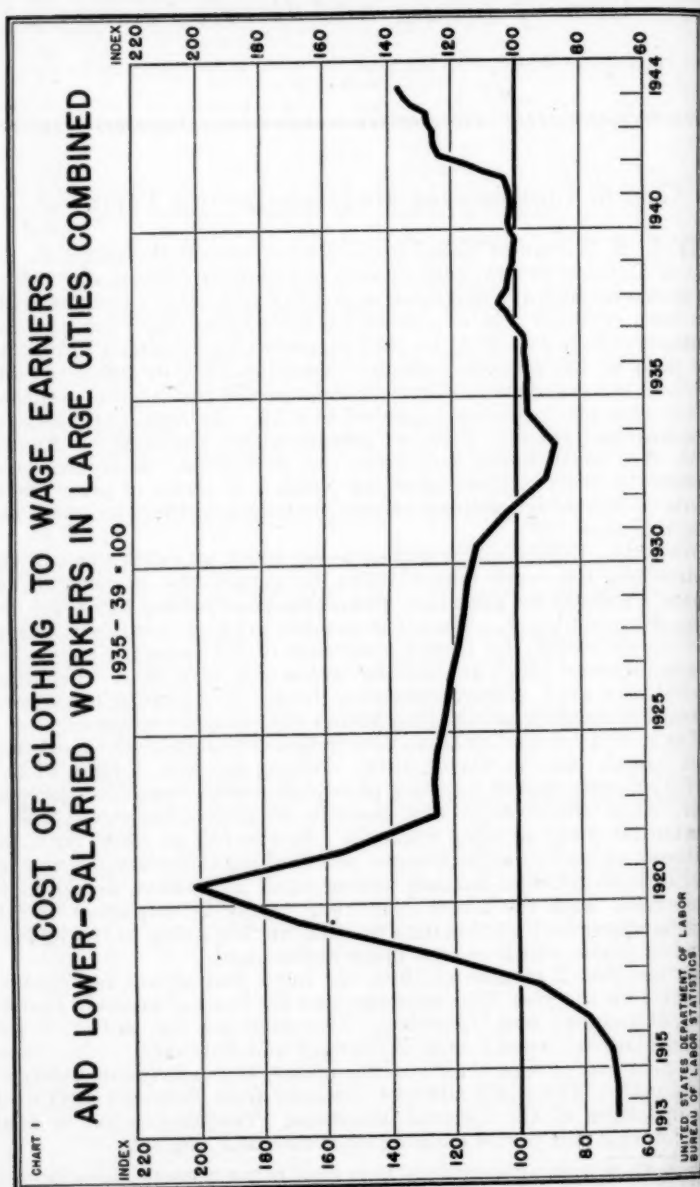
When the Bureau's new cost-of-living index was developed in the mid-1930's, the work was planned to permit the preparation of separate indexes for each item priced for the clothing index, for the large cities combined. Thus it is possible to bring into focus during this recent period the price movements of the separate articles of wearing apparel which are included in the summary figure on changes in clothing costs.² Before examining this detailed picture, the general changes in clothing prices since March 1935 may be reviewed.

The period covered by these item indexes extends for the most part from March 1935 to March 1944. During the first 5 years of this period, clothing prices were comparatively stable except for the year 1937, when employment and business conditions improved and a substantial price advance occurred. In the fall of 1939, with the outbreak of hostilities in Europe, the clothing index again began to rise, but the average increase was so small as to seem negligible in comparison with the advance in 1937. Only in retrospect did it become apparent that this date marked the beginning of the upward trend in prices which is now being experienced.

By the first 2 months of 1941, the index had almost returned to the level for the year 1939, calculated on the basis of prices in March, June, September, and December. This drop was due to the sales of winter clothing, usually held in January and February. After these sales were over, prices of all wearing apparel began to follow a sharply rising path. The rapid advance persisted from February 1941 until the operation of the General Maximum Price Regulation in May 1942; during this period clothing costs rose 25.7 percent.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Prices and Cost of Living Branch by Emil D. Schell and Laura Mae Webb.

² The phrases "changes in clothing costs" and "price changes" are used in this article according to the definitions employed in the preparation of the Bureau's clothing indexes.



That Governmental efforts to control clothing costs have not been entirely successful is indicated by the continued upward movement of the index even after the promulgation of the General Maximum Price Regulation which fixed ceilings at the maximum price of March 1942. Analysis of the causes for the recent rise in the clothing index shows, however, that nearly all of the recent advance is caused by the disappearance of lower price lines. The fact that price controls were partially successful, even with this gap, is shown in some measure by a comparison with the rise during the last war. Four years and 7 months after the start of the first World War, clothing costs had increased 117.7 percent. In the same length of time during the present war the rise was 36.3 percent.

Problems and Methods of Measurement

The transfer of clothing production from the home to the factory was almost completed before any of the major industrial countries had undertaken the measurement of changes in clothing costs to low- and moderate-income families. This transfer considerably complicated the task of the statistician working in this field. Factory production of clothing, particularly of women's clothing, has been accompanied by annual style changes which make it difficult to follow prices of clothing of equivalent quality from one year to the next. The task was further complicated in the early 20's by the development of synthetic fibers which gradually replaced silk, wool, and cotton to some degree. The Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of the clothing expenditures of wage earners and clerical workers at the end of the last war showed that only a very small part of the money spent by this group for clothing went to buy yard goods. As a result, when the Bureau began in 1918 to collect clothing prices at retail and to prepare indexes of clothing costs as far back as 1913, a very large proportion of the articles of clothing priced for the index consisted of ready-to-wear clothing.

If the Bureau had followed the precedent of the clothing-cost index then being computed in the United Kingdom, it would have resolved the dilemma in another way. Aside from men's wool suits and overcoats, men's shoes and boots, knitted underwear, and cotton and woolen stockings, the United Kingdom index does not include any ready-to-wear clothing, but it does include prices of woolen material for women's outer wear, percale prints, flannelette, calico, cotton shirting, zephyr, satin, drill, galatea, and longcloth. The British Ministry of Labor is thus in a better position than the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics to follow changes in the cost of clothing of identical quality, because quality changes are more readily evaluated for textiles than for finished wearing apparel. The British method, however, leaves entirely out of account the changes in the cost of garment production as it is transferred to the ultimate consumer.

The prices on which the Bureau's indexes of clothing costs are now based represent, as far as possible, the qualities purchased by wage earners and clerical workers in large cities in 1934-36. When a particular item begins to disappear from the market, it is replaced in the Bureau's index by the price series for the article which has taken its place. For example, when it became difficult to buy overcoats made entirely of new wool, overcoats made in part of reworked wool were

introduced to take the place of the "all-wool" series. At present, there are no quantitative measures of the gain or loss in utility to the consumer that may accompany such a forced change in consumption. When the new goods introduced are at a lower price level and there is reason to believe, as in this case, that they may not wear so long, the new series is linked into the index so that no drop is shown.

When the Bureau's agents report that a storekeeper no longer stocks a given quality of merchandise or carries it only in odd lots or sizes, so that only articles of higher quality and higher price are available, the indexes reflect this change. Half of the increase from the price of the lower quality to the price of the higher quality is used in computing the index. This procedure is followed when the substitute quality was available in the earlier period, on the assumption that some workers had previously purchased it and their particular costs, therefore, were not increased when the lower quality disappeared. If the higher-quality substitute article was not available in the previous pricing period, the entire increase in price is reflected in the index.

If goods previously priced for the index have disappeared, and lower qualities come onto the market at a higher price, the indexes show the full amount of the price difference as an increase in costs. Naturally, the consumer experiences an even greater advance in actual costs, since this procedure does not reflect the increase resulting from losses in durability or in other desirable features of wearing apparel. Statistical measures of the serviceability of clothing are not available which could be used with price changes. If the lower quality is sold at a lower cost, the change is "linked in" so that the index is not permitted to drop on this account.

When a dealer reports that the current volume seller is an article of higher price than that most frequently bought in the previous month, but that he still has a plentiful supply of the lower-priced article, this shift in consumer preference is not reflected in these indexes as an increase in costs.

Other methods could be adopted for measuring changes in the price situation and indexes useful for different purposes could be obtained. For example, indexes could be computed which would measure changes in the cost of clothing to all American consumers. According to the Study of Spending and Saving in Wartime the clothing expenditures of families of employed wage earners and clerical workers in large cities represented only 23 percent of total clothing expenditures for the United States. Expenditures by families of wage earners and clerical workers in small cities, by farm and village families, by other moderate-income families, by lower- and higher-income families, and by single individuals, amounted to 77 percent of the total.

An index of changes in clothing costs to all American consumers would be weighted by dollar values of total retail sales. An index weighted in this way might be calculated to show changes in the cost of clothing of the same quality, as far as it is possible to do so, or it might be calculated to show changes in the cost of the types of clothing sold in the greatest volume at different periods of time. Such an index based on prices of the current volume sellers would move differently from the Bureau's present index of clothing costs, because of the difference in the relative importance of each item in the two indexes and because, in periods of rising income, qualities of the current volume seller rise, and in periods of declining income, qualities of current

volume sellers are lowered. This type of index would be useful in measuring time-to-time changes in the quantity of goods sold if it were applied to changes in the total volume of retail sales.

Composition of the Clothing Index

A list of the 47 articles and services included in the summary figure of clothing costs is given in table 1. This table also shows the relative importance in the September 1939 index of these clothing and service items. It is important to distinguish between the relative importance of a particular item in the clothing index, and its relative importance in average family expenditures. Collection of prices for every garment purchased by consumers in order to produce an index showing changes in total clothing costs would be an uneconomical and impossible procedure. For this reason, a list of the more important articles was chosen to represent all clothing purchases. In order to maintain the proper balance in the index, the expenditures for those items that are not priced are allocated to the priced items of similar fabric or construction. For example, the movement of price changes in handkerchiefs, which are not priced for the index, is reflected in the index by the average movement of all cotton goods that are priced, and the expenditure for handkerchiefs has been distributed proportionately among all cotton items in the index.

A minimum of four prices for each quality of each article in the index is requested in each of 33 large cities. In New York the minimum number is five. The agents may need to visit as many as eight stores to fill this quota. If the eight stores do not yield four or more quotations, whatever number is obtained is used in computing the index. Since visits to eight stores reveal fairly well those articles for which there are prevailing shortages, calling at additional stores is unlikely to add a sufficient number of quotations to justify the additional expense in collection. Thus, for some garments, fewer than four quotations have been used in many cities during the war period because of the scarcity of supplies. The use of limited numbers of quotations has been most pronounced in the case of work clothing. On the other hand, more than the required number of quotations are often reported by the field representatives and all of those reported are used. For some clothing articles, more prices are used in making up the index, because several qualities of the article are priced. For example, two qualities of men's wool overcoats are used. On a few items, such as neckties, prices are obtained for only a single quality. This is an insufficient number of prices to yield a reliable average of the monthly price change for a single item in a particular city, but is large enough to yield an accurate measure of monthly price changes for total clothing costs within each city or for a single item in the large cities combined.

Indexes of changes in costs of different qualities of clothing are not available because of procedures used in computing the indexes when shifts occur in the qualities of the articles available on the market, as explained above.

At the time of the outbreak of war in September 1939, the Bureau collected clothing prices on March 15, June 15, September 15, and December 15 in 34 large cities. Foreseeing the need for more frequent reports on the cost of living during wartime, Federal defense agencies

furnished funds to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, to enable it to make monthly collections in 20 cities beginning with September 15, 1940. Washington, D. C., was added to this list of cities in September 1941. For reasons of economy, a shorter list of articles was priced at the intraquarterly months; thus, the clothing index is estimated on the basis of the shorter list of items in 21 cities each intraquarterly month. At the quarterly dates the indexes for the two previous months are revised according to the price movement of the complete list of clothing articles in the 34 cities.

It will be noted from the list of articles priced and their relative importance in the index (table 1), that garments made primarily of wool account for about a third of the clothing expenditures of the urban worker's family. Approximately a fifth goes for cotton clothing, and a little less than a fifth for silk and rayon clothing and for footwear. Miscellaneous garments and services for clothing upkeep each take about 6 percent of the total clothing outlay.

TABLE 1.—Relative Importance of Clothing Items Priced for Cost-of-Living Index in Large Cities

Item	Percentage distribution of costs, Sept. 15, 1939	Item	Percentage distribution of costs, Sept. 15, 1939
All clothing items.....	100.0	Cotton clothing—Continued.	
Wool clothing.....	32.3	Women's—	
Men's—		Dresses, street.....	2.0
Overcoats.....	2.8	House dresses.....	2.0
Topcoats.....	1.3	Nightgowns.....	1.0
Suits, heavyweight.....	10.5	Percale yard goods.....	1.0
Suits, lightweight.....	.8	Silk and rayon clothing.....	18.1
Trousers.....	1.3	Men's socks.....	1.0
Jackets.....	1.1	Women's—	
Sweaters.....	1.9	Dresses.....	6.7
Women's—		Panties.....	1.7
Coats, heavy, fur-trimmed.....	3.8	Slips.....	1.4
Coats, heavy, plain.....	2.0	Hose.....	6.8
Coats, light, plain.....	1.9	Yard goods.....	.7
Skirts.....	1.8	Footwear.....	17.6
Dresses.....	1.0	Men's—	
Hats.....	1.6	Shoes, street.....	4.1
Girls' coats.....	.5	Shoes, work.....	1.1
Cotton clothing.....	19.3	Rubbers.....	1.0
Men's—		Women's shoes.....	7.4
Suits and trousers.....	.3	Children's shoes.....	2.8
Trousers, work.....	.6	Other garments.....	6.1
Overalls.....	1.0	Men's—	
Shirts, work.....	1.2	Hats, fur-felt.....	1.3
Shirts, business.....	3.2	Hats, straw.....	.3
Pajamas.....	1.1	Neckties.....	1.2
Shorts.....	.6	Women's—	
Undershirts.....	1.3	Coats, fur.....	1.2
Union suits.....	1.3	Gloves, leather.....	1.0
Socks.....	2.7	Girdles.....	1.6
		Services.....	5.9
		Dry cleaning.....	3.9
		Shoe repairs.....	2.7

Changes in Costs of Individual Clothing Articles

The spread in the cost changes of the individual clothing items between September 15, 1939, and March 15, 1944 (table 2), illustrates the striking differences in the various retail price adjustments to changing economic conditions. The changes ranged from an increase of 2 percent in men's neckties to more than 105 percent for women's cotton house dresses, the latter figure being about 3 times the average

change in the total clothing-cost index. Total clothing costs rose 36.3 percent during this period, with 27 items showing a greater-than-average rise in costs and 20 showing a less-than-average advance. It may be observed that a purchaser encounters a less-severe price rise in buying a new fur coat (up 42 percent) than does the housewife in replacing a necessary percale house dress. All the items of women's cotton wearing apparel in the index show greater increases than the average of total clothing costs since 1939.

TABLE 2.—Percent of Change in Cost of Clothing Items Priced for Cost-of-Living Index in Large Cities, September 15, 1939, to March 15, 1944

[Items listed in order of size of percentage change]

Item	Percent of Increase, Sept. 15, 1939-Mar. 15, 1944	Item	Percent of Increase, Sept. 15, 1939-Mar. 15, 1944
House dresses, cotton.....	105.9	Suits, men's, wool heavyweight.....	37.3
Pajamas, men's cotton.....	60.2	Shirts, business.....	37.1
Nightgowns, women's cotton.....	68.9	Socks, men's, rayon.....	36.7
Shorts, men's cotton.....	68.7	Union suits, cotton.....	34.3
Shirts, cotton, work.....	62.7	Suits, men's, wool, lightweight.....	34.1
Girdles.....	60.0	Hats, women's, felt.....	33.6
Overalls, cotton.....	56.4	Shoes, men's, street.....	32.9
Cotton yard goods, percale.....	54.3	Jackets, men's, wool.....	32.5
Coats, women's, wool, lightweight.....	54.2	Panties, rayon.....	32.0
Undershirts, cotton.....	51.0	Dresses, wool.....	31.6
Coats, girls' wool.....	47.7	Shoes, children's.....	31.2
Shoes, men's work.....	47.5	Coats, women's, wool, heavy, plain.....	30.0
Rayon yard goods.....	46.3	Coats, women's, wool, fur-trimmed.....	29.2
Dresses, cotton, street.....	45.1	Topcoats, men's, wool.....	27.9
Fur coats, women's.....	43.2	Sweaters, men's, wool.....	27.8
Trousers, cotton, work.....	42.9	Hose, women's.....	26.6
Skirts, wool.....	41.9	Socks, men's, cotton.....	25.3
Shoe repairs.....	39.8	Overcoats, men's, wool.....	24.2
Dresses, rayon.....	39.4	Gloves, women's, leather.....	21.8
Hats, men's, fur-felt.....	39.4	Shoes, women's.....	19.9
Robbers, men's.....	38.0	Dry cleaning.....	12.3
Slips, rayon.....	38.1	Hats, men's, straw.....	11.7
Suits and trousers, cotton.....	38.0	Neckties, men's.....	2.5
Trousers, wool.....	37.8		

¹ Percent of change, March 1939-March 1944.

² Percent of change, September 1939-December 1943.

³ Percent of change, June 1939-March 1944.

⁴ Percent of change, June 1939-June 1943.

⁵ Percent of change, September 1939-January 1944.

⁶ Percent of change, September 1939-February 1944.

When percentage changes between September 15, 1939, and March 15, 1944, are multiplied by their relative importance as given in table 1, an interesting shift in ranking is obtained. The resulting figures (table 3) indicate the contribution of each item to the 36.3-percent increase in total clothing costs, whereas table 2 showed only the percentage change in the cost of each item without taking into account whether or not it was among the more important items in the clothing budget. The difference between the sum of these products, 36.1 percent, and the 36.3-percent change in total clothing costs shown by the Bureau's index was caused by the rounding of figures and the revision of the population weights made in March 1943 which had a slight effect on the cost weights.

TABLE 3.—*Contribution of Changes in Cost of Individual Items to Change in Total Clothing Costs in Large Cities Between September 1939 and March 1944*

(Items listed in order of size of contribution)

Item	Percent of change, September 1939–March 1944, weighted by relative importance in budget	Item	Percent of change, September 1939–March 1944, weighted by relative importance in budget
All items.....	36.11	Overalls, cotton.....	0.56
Suits, men's, wool, heavyweight.....	3.92	Cotton yard goods, percale.....	.54
Dresses, rayon.....	2.64	Hats, women's, felt.....	.54
House dresses, cotton.....	2.12	Panties, rayon.....	.54
Hose, women's.....	1.81	Sweaters, men's, wool.....	.53
Shoes, men's, street.....	1.48	Slips, rayon.....	.52
Shoes, women's.....	1.47	Shoes, men's, work.....	.52
Shoes, children's.....	1.19	Fur coats, women's.....	.52
Shirts, business.....	1.19	Hats, men's, fur-felt.....	.51
Coats, women's, wool, fur-trimmed.....	1.11	Trousers, wool.....	.49
Coats, women's, wool, lightweight.....	1.03	Union suits, cotton.....	.45
Dresses, cotton, street.....	.90	Dry cleaning.....	.44
Girdles.....	.90	Shorts, men's, cotton.....	.41
Shoe repairs.....	.88	Rubbers, men's.....	.39
Pajamas, men's, cotton.....	.76	Socks, men's, rayon.....	.37
Skirts, wool.....	.73	Jackets, men's, wool.....	.36
Shirts, cotton, work.....	.75	Topcoats, men's, wool.....	.36
Socks, men's, cotton.....	.71	Dresses, wool.....	.35
Nightgowns, women's, cotton.....	.69	Rayon yard goods.....	.32
Overcoats, men's, wool.....	.68	Suits, men's, wool, lightweight.....	.32
Undershirts, cotton.....	.66	Trousers, cotton, work.....	.28
Coats, women's, wool, heavy, plain.....	1.60	Coats, girls', wool.....	.24
		Gloves, women's, leather.....	.22
		Suits and trousers, cotton.....	.11
		Hats, men's, straw.....	.04
		Neckties, men's.....	.00

¹ Percent of change, September 1939–January 1944.² Percent of change, March 1939–March 1944.³ Percent of change, June 1939–March 1944.⁴ Percent of change, September 1939–February 1944.⁵ Percent of change, September 1939–December 1943.⁶ Percent of change, June 1939–June 1943.

A number of articles which have advanced in price to a considerable extent since 1939, as shown in table 2, appear in a lower position in table 3 because other articles, showing less spectacular increases, represent a larger portion of the total family outlay for clothing purchases and therefore have a greater influence on its cost. For example, men's cotton shorts dropped from fourth place in table 2 to thirty-fourth place in table 3, rayon yard goods from thirteenth to fortieth, and men's cotton work trousers from sixteenth to forty-second on the list. By contrast, women's shoes, women's hose, children's shoes, and women's heavy fur-trimmed coats rose by more than 25 places in table 3, illustrating the greater effect of their more moderate rise on the change in total clothing costs.

The largest single contribution to the rise in the cost of the average clothing budget on which the index computations are based has been that of men's heavyweight wool suits. The large effect of this item on total clothing costs is due to its importance in the family clothing budget. Women's rayon dresses have had a larger influence on the upward movement of the index than cotton house dresses, which rank third in table 3. All types of leather footwear rank fairly high when considered from the viewpoint of their influence on the increased cost of family clothing. The total contribution to the 36-percent rise in all clothing costs, from September 15, 1939, to March 15, 1944, of any

group of articles may be obtained by adding the figures given for the articles in table 3.

Group Indexes

To measure increases in different types of clothing articles, composite cost indexes of the broad groups of items in the clothing index have been prepared. In the preparation of these indexes, items not in season are carried at the level at which they were sold at the close of the previous season. When an article reappears on the market in the following season the entire change, as compared with the closing price of the previous season, is taken as an increase during the month of reappearance. This procedure is logical since it reflects cost changes at the time they are felt by the purchaser, and is also supported by a more practical consideration. Any method of assuming a given price movement for out-of-season articles will go awry at times because of shifting market conditions and thus will lead either to extensive revisions or to the showing of monthly changes contrary to the trend of prices of articles available throughout the year.

Woolen clothing.—Retail prices of woolen clothing showed substantial advances in the last half of 1941. Consumption, which had already reached new heights because of increased incomes, was undoubtedly further stimulated by the doubt whether accumulated stocks would be sufficient, with reduced imports, to meet military requirements under the new Selective Service Program. In January 1942, after the entry of the United States into the war, measures were adopted limiting the consumption and prices of wool at wholesale. On May 18, 1942, the effective date of the General Maximum Price Regulation, price ceilings were established at the retail level. Despite the fact that prices of woolen cloth have remained substantially unchanged since 1943, the cost of woolen clothing at retail has continued to advance. Analysis of the increases in costs of woolen clothing during recent months shows the cause to be the continually dwindling supply of lower price and quality lines previously available. Several other countries have met this problem during the present war by instituting special measures to maintain the supplies of these goods, as a supplement to effective price control.

Cotton clothing.—Retail prices of cotton clothing have shown the largest advance of all components of the clothing index. In 1939 the Government had embarked on a comprehensive program to solve the problem of a recurrent surplus of raw cotton. Since prices of cotton were above the world price, payments on exported cotton were made by the Government to stimulate sales to foreign countries. In addition, loans were granted to cotton growers which enabled them to sell their cotton to the Government, with the privilege of repurchase if the prices reached a level sufficiently profitable for them to redeem it after the costs of storage and carrying charges on the loans were considered. As late as May 1940, a program was initiated for the sale of stamps to families on relief, to enable them to buy cotton clothing in regular outlets at reduced prices, the difference being paid by the Federal Government. This program was discontinued at varying times in different sections of the country but was not completely halted until June 1942. A similar program was in use for farmers growing cotton. If they reduced their cotton acreage below

the quotas set by the Government and planted the land to other crops, they received stamp allotments for purchasing finished cotton garments. As in the case of wool, there was no basic increase in prices of cotton textiles (denims, printed cloth, and sheeting) during 1943, and the continued price advance of garments purchased by moderate-income families has been almost entirely a result of the unavailability of lower price lines. The problem of producing a sufficient amount of finished cotton textiles to fulfill both military and civilian needs has been intensified by an acute shortage of manpower in the mills.

Silk and rayon clothing.—Prior to the war, silk and rayon articles were of approximately the same importance in the clothing-cost index. Between June 1939 and September 1942, the index of the cost of silk and rayon clothing rose 26.2 percent, compared to advances of 24.0 percent for woolen goods and 35.0 percent for cotton articles. Commencing in September 1942, silk clothing articles were replaced in the index mostly with rayon products, because silk imports were cut off and the existing supplies were reserved for military use. Thus, rayon costume slips were substituted in the index for silk slips, and rayon hose and cotton anklets for silk stockings.

From September 1942 to March 1944, the silk and rayon index (now consisting wholly of rayon goods) advanced more slowly than the indexes of the cost of cotton and woolen articles—5.2 percent, as contrasted with increases of 11.4 and 9.0 percent, respectively.

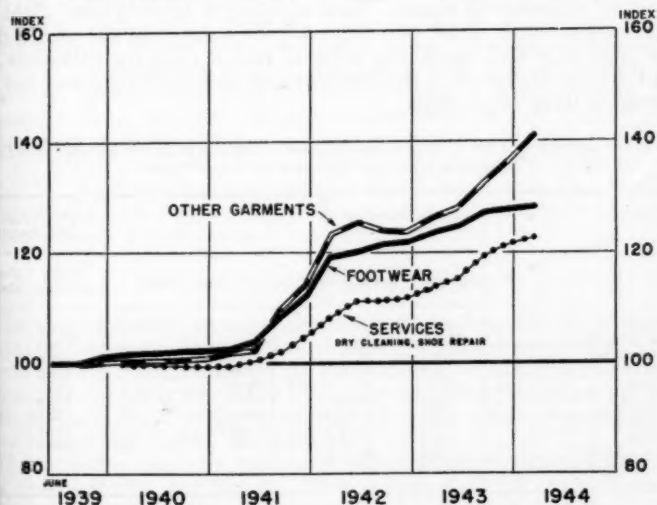
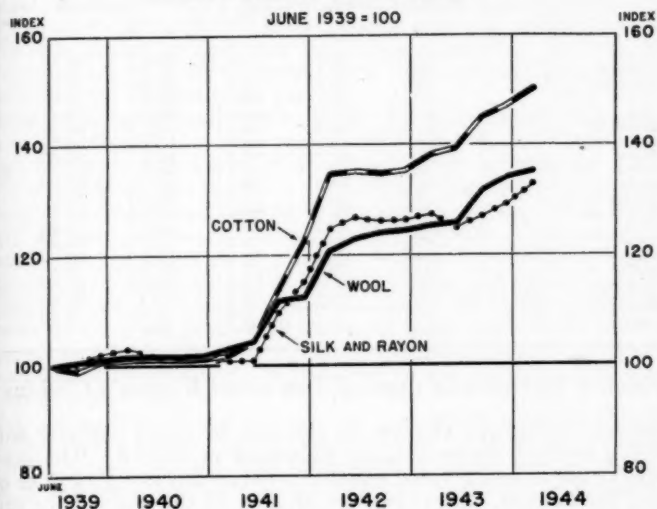
Footwear.—The index of retail prices of footwear increased 28.4 percent from June 1939 to March 1944. This group is represented in the index by men's street and work shoes, rubbers, and women's and children's shoes. Prices of men's work shoes showed the greatest increase (48.0 percent) and women's shoes the smallest increase (20 percent).

Deterioration in both materials and workmanship has been reported widely by the trade. This indirect increase in cost is not reflected in the cost-of-living index. In recent months there has been a decided trend in the purchase of higher-priced lines, caused partly by increased incomes and partly by the desire on the part of the consumer to make his shoes last until the next ration stamp becomes valid. According to the trade reports, this situation has created a sluggish market for the lowest price lines, and many of these lines have consequently been dropped from retail shelves.

Other garments.—Of the six clothing articles included in this group, women's girdles have shown the largest advance in cost, and have chiefly caused the rapid rise in the group as a whole. A 10-percent tax on fur coats, which are also included in this group, became effective October 1941. This tax was increased to 20 percent on April 1, 1944, but the latter increase will not be reflected in the index until fur and fur-trimmed coats are priced in the fall season.

Services.—Shoe-repair and dry-cleaning costs showed a more gradual advance than the wearing-apparel groups, and thus far have risen less, taken together, than any of the other clothing groups. In recent months manpower shortages, which have been severe in the lower-paid service trades, have diminished this gap. Many of the increases reported for shoe repairs have been ascribed by dealers to higher prices of materials.

CHART 2
COST OF SPECIFIED SUBGROUPS OF CLOTHING
TO WAGE EARNERS AND LOWER-SALARIED WORKERS
IN LARGE CITIES COMBINED



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 4.—Indexes of Cost of Specified Subgroups of Clothing to Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities, June 1939–March 1944

Month	Indexes (June 1939=100) of cost of—					Services (dry cleaning, shoe repair)
	Woolen clothing	Cotton clothing	Silk and rayon clothing	Footwear	Other garments	
1939: June.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
September.....	100.4	99.0	100.3	100.0	99.9	100.3
December.....	100.9	100.8	102.0	101.2	100.1	100.3
1940: March.....	101.6	101.1	102.8	102.0	100.3	99.8
June.....	101.6	101.1	101.6	102.0	100.2	99.7
September.....	101.5	101.0	101.0	102.1	100.6	99.6
December.....	101.7	101.2	101.0	102.1	100.7	99.4
1941: March.....	102.8	101.7	100.7	102.6	101.8	99.4
June.....	104.3	104.0	100.7	103.9	102.1	100.2
September.....	111.9	113.9	109.7	108.5	102.5	101.7
December.....	112.5	122.4	115.3	112.0	114.2	104.9
1942: March.....	120.6	134.7	124.9	119.2	123.3	106.3
June.....	122.9	135.3	126.7	120.1	125.3	111.3
September.....	124.0	135.0	126.2	121.5	123.8	111.3
December.....	124.2	135.4	126.3	121.7	123.6	111.6
1943: March.....	125.4	138.1	127.6	123.5	126.1	113.5
June.....	125.7	139.4	124.9	124.6	127.7	113.3
September.....	131.8	145.0	127.0	127.1	132.6	119.4
December.....	134.1	147.0	129.3	127.8	136.6	121.3
1944: March.....	135.2	150.4	132.7	128.4	141.0	122.5

Relative Increases in Costs of Men's and Women's Clothing

Indexes, giving the changes in the cost of men's clothing and in women's clothing separately, are presented in table 5. The cost of children's shoes was divided equally between the two groups in computing the indexes. Services were divided on the basis of the article priced for cleaning or repair. It is of interest to note how slight the differences between these two indexes have been. In the period from June 1939 to March 1944, the index of men's clothing costs has frequently been higher than the index of women's clothing costs, but the differences have been slight.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Cost of Men's and Women's Clothing to Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers' Families in Large Cities

Date	Indexes (June 1939 = 100) of cost of—		Date	Indexes (June 1939 = 100) of cost of—	
	Men's clothing	Women's clothing		Men's clothing	Women's clothing
1939: June.....	100.0	100.0	1942: March.....	124.5	122.1
September.....	100.0	99.9	June.....	126.2	123.9
December.....	101.0	101.1	September.....	126.8	124.1
1940: March.....	101.7	101.6	December.....	127.2	124.1
June.....	101.7	101.1	1943: March.....	128.6	126.1
September.....	101.7	100.9	June.....	129.5	125.7
December.....	101.9	100.8	September.....	132.4	131.4
1941: March.....	102.9	101.0	December.....	134.4	131.7
June.....	104.6	101.7	1944: March.....	135.4	136.9
September.....	110.9	110.3			
December.....	114.0	115.1			

Specifications for the Collection of Retail Prices

Descriptions (or specifications, as they are termed by the Bureau) of each of the commodities in the index are supplied to the Bureau's

field representatives, to insure, as far as possible, the pricing of approximately the same quality in different stores and in different cities.

Prior to the war, the qualities specified for inclusion in the index were determined by the qualities purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in 1934-36. It was always necessary to make some revisions in the specifications used for pricing from time to time, as styles or consumer preferences changed. In such cases, the quality specified for the new article was as nearly as possible the same as for the discontinued one.

Under war conditions, however, Government regulations and the lack of availability of some materials have necessitated many changes in the qualities and kinds of consumer goods purchased. Accordingly, the Bureau has provided its field representatives with supplementary specifications describing the articles being produced currently in addition to those manufactured prior to the war. For example, large quantities of combed yarns are allocated to military orders and additional quantities are voluntarily sold by manufacturers for military and Lend-Lease orders because of the higher price ceilings allowed by OPA on yarns sold for these purposes. As a result, the Bureau's supplementary specifications designate carded yarns in the fabrics for many garments in addition to the combed yarns in the regular specifications.

Representatives of the Bureau are instructed to price the types described in the original specifications as long as they are available in the retail stores, and are also instructed to return to the use of the original specifications as soon as such goods are again available, if they have found it necessary to use the supplementary specifications for one or more pricing periods. The extent to which the supplementary specifications have been used varies by commodity and by city. In war centers, where the population has increased substantially, agents have used the supplementary specifications more frequently than in those cities in which there is not such a rapid turnover in stocks. For example, in December 1943, 82 percent of the quotations on men's inexpensive-quality percale pajamas were priced by the supplementary specifications, while only 23 percent of the quotations on men's inexpensive-quality undershirts were on the supplementary specifications.

HOW SPECIFICATIONS ARE DEVELOPED

The specifications used by the Bureau for the collection of retail prices are based on detailed information, obtained periodically from representative manufacturers in the major producing areas. More frequent check-up is necessary at the present time because of Government allocations of scarce materials and the many changes in the types of clothing and shoes produced.

The following example illustrates the kind of information on which new specifications are based. In the spring of 1943, the Bureau's representatives reported they were unable to obtain the requested minimum number of prices on work clothing in many cities. Consequently, detailed descriptions of overalls, work pants, and work shirts currently being produced were obtained from manufacturers having plants throughout the United States. Table 6 shows a portion

of the detail obtained from 29 manufacturers of work shirts (brand name, wholesale price, estimated retail price, and other identifying information have been omitted).

TABLE 6.—*Specification Details Obtained From Manufacturers of Work Shirts, April 1943*

Name of fabric	Width of fabric (inches)	Weight of fabric (number of yards of yards per pound)	Thread count per square inch	Finish of fabric	Type of dye	Yardage per dozen	Neckband size on which yardage is based
Jean	36	2.85	96 x 64	Sanforized	Vat	30	14 -17
Jean	36	2.85	(1)	do	do	28½	14 -17
Jean	36	2.85	96 x 64	do	do	29½	14 -17½
Jean	36	2.85	(1)	do	do	29½	14½-17½
Jean	36	2.85	101 x 66	do	do	28	14 -17
Jean	36	2.85	(1)	do	do	26-28	14 -17
Jean	36	2.85	96 x 64	do	do	30	14 -17
Jean	36	2.85	96 x 64	do	do	30	14 -18½
Jean	36	2.85	96 x 64	do	do	30	14 -20
Jean	36	2.85	96 x 64	Mill shrunk	do	28	14 -17
Jean	36	2.85	(1)	Pre-shrunk	do	29½	14 -17
Jean	36	2.85	(1)	Sanforized	do	29½	14½-17½
Jean	36	2.85	96 x 64	do	do	30	14 -18
Jean	36	2.85	(1)	Unshrunk	do	29½	14½-17½
Jean	36	2.85	96 x 64	Sanforized	do	29½	14 -18
Jean	36	(1)	(1)	do	do	(1)	14 -17
Chambray	36	3.90	(1)	Unshrunk	do	29½	14 -17
Chambray	36	3.90	68 x 52	do	Commercial	30	14 -17
Chambray	36	3.90	68 x 52	do	(1)	28½	14½-17
Chambray	36	3.90	(1)	do	(1)	29½	14 -20
Chambray	36	3.90	(1)	Sanforized	Commercial	29½-31	14 -18
Chambray	36	3.90	68 x 52	do	Indigo	29½	14½-17
Chambray	36	3.50	(1)	do	Commercial	29	14 -17
Chambray	36	3.55	68 x 56	do	Indigo	30	14 -18
Covert	36	2.81	(1)	do	(1)	29½-30	14½-17
Covert	36	2.85	48 x 44	do	Commercial	26½	14 -17
Covert	36	2.90	(1)	do	Sulphur	29½	14 -17
Covert	36	3.20	(1)	(1)	Vat	30	14 -17½
Covert	36	3.20	(1)	Unshrunk	Commercial	30	14 -17
		Ounces per yard					
Twill	36	(1)	(1)	Sanforized	Vat	29-30	14 -17
Twill	36	8.20	(1)	do	do	31	14 -17
Twill	36	6.00	(1)	do	do	30	14½-17
Twill	36	8.20	(1)	do	do	29½	14 -18
Twill	36	6.00	(1)	do	do	28	14 -17

¹ Not known by manufacturer.

Previously, prices had been collected on two qualities of chambray work shirts and one quality of covert. The information obtained from the manufacturers indicated that some modifications were necessary in the description of the chambray and the covert shirts priced. Jean shirts were being produced in much greater volume than before and were therefore included in the kinds of work shirts priced for the cost-of-living index.

On the basis of the data, the following specification was developed for jean work shirts:

Shirt, work, cotton

Fabric: Jean, 2.85 yds./lb., Sanforized.

Construction and styling: Full sized; well made; careful seaming; pockets without flaps; 28-30 yds./doz. based on 36" fabric and neckband size scale 14-17. Specify whether with or without union label.

*Government Regulations Affecting Quality of Clothing and Shoes
Priced for Cost-of-Living Index*

The Government orders which resulted, either directly or indirectly, in changes in specifications for clothing and shoes priced for the cost-of-living index are discussed below.

**GOVERNMENT ORDERS WHICH REQUIRED CHANGES IN CONSTRUCTION OF
CIVILIAN APPAREL**

Limitation Orders on Leather

Early in 1942, all of the better qualities of leathers of specified thicknesses, ordinarily used in the production of outer and inner soles for civilian footwear, were limited to military use.³ These better qualities included all of the vegetable-tanned outersole leather of 8½ to 11 iron thickness in the medium and better grades, as well as first-quality leathers ranging in thickness from 5½ to 7 iron.

As a result of the limitations on the use of these leathers for civilian goods, the Bureau issued the first supplementary shoe specifications in September 1942 for all of the qualities included in the cost-of-living index. In general, these specifications permitted the pricing of shoes with soles of lower quality and reduced thickness. Even for shoes of higher qualities than are ordinarily priced for the index, the better qualities of leather formerly used were not available. Composition soles for men's work shoes and inexpensive dress shoes, priced under supplementary specifications, were reported to be quite durable. Some better-quality leathers, reserved for military use but rejected for reasons which frequently did not affect the durability of the leather, have been utilized by manufacturers for several types of men's shoes priced for the index. Such leathers were included in the supplementary specifications, and it is believed that shoes made with soles of Army reject leather may represent somewhat better quality shoes than those priced by the use of the Bureau's regular specifications.

In addition to a reduction in the quality and thickness of sole leathers, the types of leathers specified for uppers were expanded to include additional qualities in the supplementary specifications. Women's dress type shoes included additional styles, as well as fabric uppers, thus reflecting a fashion trend which had become important even before limitations were placed on the use of leather.

In June 1943, the second set of supplementary specifications was written for 9 of the shoes included in the index. These specifications represented relatively few changes from the first supplementary specifications issued in September 1942 and were necessitated by revisions in Government regulations, such as elimination of middle soles for all except work shoes, etc.

Limitations on Use of Natural Rubber

In the spring of 1942, production of rubber yarns and elastic threads for civilian use was prohibited.⁴ To insure that the supply of elastic fabrics already produced, which was available to the civilian trade,

³ Conservation Order M-80, originally issued March 12, 1942. This order was revoked and superseded by M-310, but these provisions were retained.

⁴ WFB order M-124, issued March 28, 1942.

would be used in the production of the maximum number of garments, WPB issued an order⁵ limiting the quantity of elastic fabric to be used in a single foundation garment. Consequently, supplementary specifications were written for girdles in September 1942, reducing the amount of elastic yarn required in the garments priced.

The prohibition against the further production of elastic yarn from natural rubber for civilian use necessitated the issuance by the Bureau of supplementary specifications for certain qualities of women's panties, to permit the pricing of garments with drawstring waists. Similarly, men's shorts were changed to the tie sides in place of elastic inserts at the waist.

As a result of the prohibition against the use of new crude rubber in footwear, "reclaimed rubber" was designated in the second set of supplementary shoe specifications.

Style-Simplification Orders

During 1942, WPB issued a series of orders limiting the amount of fabric for work clothing and the measurements for several other types of clothing in order to conserve fabrics without standardizing patterns.

Men's and boys' wear.—For men's and boys' woolen outerwear certain maximum measurements were stipulated in relation to size. The sweep of topcoats and overcoats and the lap on double-breasted models were limited.⁶ Two-trouser suits, vests with double-breasted suits, belted-model coats, pleats and cuffs on trousers, and patch pockets were prohibited. Later amendments permitted the use of real or simulated cuffs on trousers if the specified measurements were long enough to permit them, and the regulation was extended to all fabrics used in men's and boys' clothing, with the exception of garments made of nonwool summer-weight cloths, with a weight of 3 yards per pound or less. No changes in Bureau specifications resulted from the order other than removal of the reference to the width of trouser bottoms in the specifications for separate semidress trousers. For men's suits, specifications used by the Bureau had already applied to three-piece, single-breasted models, and the sweep of the garment was not designated. Thus, for those consumers who had been buying four-piece suits prior to this regulation, the difference in price for the extra pair of trousers when bought with the suit and when bought separately was not reflected in the cost-of-living index.

In November 1942, a simplification order was issued on men's and boys' shirts and pajamas.⁷ For shirts, lengths were limited, bi-swing or box-pleated backs and pleated fronts, and other pleats requiring the excessive use of cloth, were prohibited. Savings of fabrics resulting from these simplifications were reflected in the Bureau's specifications for shirts and pajamas by a reduction in yardage requirements.

The men's work-clothing simplification order⁸ specified the maximum and minimum yardages which could be used in various types of garments and prohibited certain construction features which WPB believes do not affect the durability of the garments. For general-purpose work clothing the number of pockets was limited, triple stitching was prohibited, and the number of buttons, buckles,

⁵ WPB order L-90, L-90a, issued April 23, 1942.

⁶ WPB Conservation Order M-73a, issued March 2, 1942. This order was revoked October 26, 1942. All limitations on men's and boys' clothing were combined in Limitation Order L-224, issued October 26, 1942.

⁷ WPB Limitation Order L-169, issued November 25, 1942.

⁸ WPB Limitation Order L-181, issued August 8, 1942.

bartacks, and reinforcements which could be used for each type of garment was designated. Because of this order, the Bureau's supplementary specifications include reduced yardage for men's work clothing and double stitching, rather than triple stitching, was specified for overalls.

Women's clothing.—WPB issued orders relating to women's dresses,⁹ slips, and gowns,¹⁰ which limited certain measurements and prohibited designated styles requiring the use of excessive yardages. These orders did not necessitate changes in any of the Bureau's specifications, since the styles and types of measurements limited by the simplification orders were not designated in the Bureau's specifications.

Hosiery Order

In order to conserve the supplies of yarns used in the production of men's, women's, and children's hose, and to assure the use of these yarns in the production of durable hose, WPB specified the sizes of yarn to be used in the production of designated types of women's rayon hose, prohibited the use of reinforced soles in cotton socks, and limited the number of styles and colors which might be produced.¹¹ As a result of this order, the Bureau's specifications for women's rayon hose had to be changed slightly, and the requirement that double soles be a feature of the women's cotton anklets had to be deleted.

Limitation Order on Designated Types of Cotton Goods

Early in 1943, WPB issued an order which froze some looms to the production of a limited number of types and constructions of cotton goods.¹² The proportion of these kinds going to military use and to civilian use was also specified. For example, to provide a substitute to the civilian trade for 80 x 80 print cloth (limited entirely to military use), manufacturers were required to standardize production of civilian print cloths into slightly lower-count, lighter-weight fabrics. Those looms allocated to civilian production, which were formerly producing print cloth of 80 x 80, 68 x 72, and 64 x 60 thread counts, were permitted to produce only 68 x 64 and 64 x 56 constructions, in order to increase the output of these looms to the maximum.

As a result of this order, the Bureau of Labor Statistics reduced the count of the fabrics specified for women's house dresses and men's shirts, pajamas, and shorts from 68 x 72 and 64 x 60 to 68 x 64 and 64 x 56.

GOVERNMENT ORDERS WHICH CAUSED, BUT DID NOT REQUIRE, CHANGES IN SPECIFICATIONS

Wool-Allocation Order

Early in January 1942, WPB placed sharp restrictions upon the use of wool for civilian purposes.¹³ Subsequent amendments to the order through the third quarter of 1942 limited still further the quantity available for civilian use. In the latter part of 1942 and in 1943, the restrictions were relaxed considerably as record-breaking stocks of

⁹ WPB Limitation Order L-85, issued April 8, 1942.

¹⁰ WPB Limitation Order L-116, issued May 10, 1942.

¹¹ WPB Limitation Order L-274, issued April 2, 1943.

¹² WPB Limitation Order L-99a, issued May 6, 1943.

¹³ WPB Conservation Order M-73, issued January 3, 1942.

apparel wool were accumulated in this country following an improvement in the ocean-transportation situation.

As a result of the order limiting the use of wool, fabric manufacturers turned to the use of blends of rayon, cotton, and wool to a greater extent than formerly so as to produce a larger volume of goods from their limited stocks of wool. Consequently, the Bureau supplemented its specifications for men's overcoats, topcoats, suits, separate trousers, and jackets, women's coats, and girls' medium-quality coats so as to secure prices for garments of blended fabrics when the all-wool articles were not available. Specifications for women's dresses and inexpensive-quality skirts and for girls' inexpensive-quality coats had previously specified blended fabrics, but the supplementary specifications included larger quantities of cotton and rayon in the blend.

As restrictions on the use of wool for civilian purposes were relaxed, agents found many retailers stocking all-wool garments, and by the spring of 1944 prices were no longer available for garments of blended fabrics in most cities.

Allocation of Raw-Silk Stocks to Military Use

Raw-silk stocks held in the United States were frozen for military use following the cessation of commercial relations with Japan in 1941; and manufacturers of civilian goods were permitted to use only those stocks which had been partly processed or "thrown." Large supplies of silk hose continued to be produced for several months, and were on the retail market for a much longer period, but the Bureau initiated the pricing of rayon hose as a result of the gradual disappearance of silk hose. Specifications for rayon hose were provided for the field representatives in September 1942, and silk-hosiery specifications were deleted in January 1943. The Bureau's original rayon hose specifications represented the qualities then being produced in greatest volume. These specifications were revised in September 1943 to conform to the standards set by WPB Order L-274.¹

Allocation of Combed Cotton Yarn

In the second quarter of 1942, WPB issued an order requiring manufacturers to set aside for military orders 40 percent of the medium and 65 percent of the coarse combed cotton yarns produced, provided military orders on hand required this large a volume of combed yarn.¹⁴ In order that a large portion of combed yarns not allocated in this manner would nevertheless be used for other military and Lend-Lease orders, OPA in May 1943 granted permission for the War and Navy Departments, the U. S. Maritime Commission, and Lend-Lease to pay a premium above the ceiling allowed for civilian products. Thus, a large portion of combed yarns was allocated to military orders, while producers preferred for the most part to sell the remainder for other military or Lend-Lease orders because of the higher prices received. Therefore, supplementary specifications were prepared for men's knit undershirts and women's cotton nightgowns, to permit the pricing of garments made from carded yarns instead of the combed yarns which had been required formerly.¹⁵

¹⁴ WPB Conservation order M-155, issued May 28, 1942.

¹⁵ Detailed data on changes made by the Bureau in its specifications for clothing will be available later in a bulletin including also the material in the present article.

Cost of Living in Large Cities, May 1944

RETAIL prices to wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities rose 0.4 percent between mid-April and mid-May. The increase was due largely to seasonal advances in prices of food and housefurnishings. Clothing costs and charges for services also rose slightly.

The all-items index stood at 125 percent of the 1935-39 average on May 15—0.1 percent below May 1943.

Retail food costs increased 0.7 percent over April, primarily because of seasonal increases in prices for roasting chickens, oranges, potatoes, and some other fresh vegetables. Prices for flour, cornmeal, and rolled oats were higher. Fresh fish, eggs, beef, and pork declined, owing to large supplies.

Food supplies generally are more plentiful than was the case in the spring of 1943, and the increase in the amount of food available for the civilian population, combined with the roll-backs and subsidies introduced during the summer of 1943 brought the index of retail food costs in May 1944 to a point 5 percent below the level of May 1943.

The further increase in housefurnishings costs reflected largely the return of spring-filled living-room suites in additional cities, at prices considerably higher than those charged a year and a half ago, when furniture of this kind was last available. Low-priced merchandise continued to be in short supply and, as in the case of cook stoves in four cities, it was necessary for families to buy higher-cost models.

Telephone bills for May included an excise tax which raised the cost of telephone service by 4.6 percent. Scattered increases in beauty-shop charges were attributed to the increased cost of supplies. Newspaper prices were raised in three cities because of higher production costs and limited paper stocks, which decreased advertising revenue.

Clothing costs advanced slightly because of scattered increases in prices for lightweight overalls, covert work trousers, and cotton socks, and the fact that new straw hats were higher priced. Women's girdles cost more because of the disappearance of low-cost qualities in some cities, and in a few cities the rayon hose available were largely those with premium features, also at higher prices.

Fuel, electricity, and ice costs declined, on the average, by 0.1 percent between April 15 and May 15. The usual seasonal decrease in gas rates went into effect in New York. In Philadelphia a temporary OPA order allowing higher anthracite and coke prices was discontinued April 30, and lower prices under previous regulations were established. Increased retail prices for anthracite and Eastern bituminous coals in Milwaukee and Minneapolis reflected increases in f. o. b. mine prices allowed several months ago.

Rents are not surveyed in May. Next month's report will give changes that have occurred over the quarter ending June 15.

In connection with the figures given in the following tables, it should be borne in mind that the Bureau of Labor Statistics index indicates average changes in retail prices of selected goods, rents, and services bought by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. The items covered represented 70 percent of the expenditures of families who had incomes ranging from \$1,250 to \$2,000 in 1934-36.

The index does not show the full wartime effect on the cost of living of such factors as lowered quality, disappearance of low-priced goods and forced changes in housing and eating away from home.

It does not measure changes in total "living costs"—that is, in the total amount families spend for living. Income taxes and bond subscriptions are not included.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, May 15, 1944, and Previous Dates

Date	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100) of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1939: August 15.....	98.6	93.5	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
1941: January 15.....	100.8	97.8	100.7	105.0	100.3	100.1	101.9
1942: May 15.....	116.0	121.6	120.2	109.9	104.9	122.2	118.9
September 15.....	117.8	120.6	125.8	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.4
1943: May 15.....	123.1	143.0	127.9	108.0	107.6	126.1	114.3
1944: April 15.....	124.5	134.6	136.9	(2)	109.9	133.0	120.7
May 15.....	125.0	135.5	137.0	(2)	109.8	134.5	121.0

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

² Rents surveyed at quarterly dates: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

The percentages of change in cost of the various groups of items are shown in table 2 for specified periods and in table 3 for the month period,¹ by cities.

TABLE 2.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living in Large Cities in Specified Periods, by Groups of Items

Date	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent ²	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
April 15, 1944, to May 15, 1944.....	+0.4	+0.7	+0.1	(3)	-0.1	+1.1	+4.1
May 15, 1943, to May 15, 1944.....	-1.1	-5.2	+7.1	+0.1	+2.0	+7.5	+4.9
September 15, 1942, to May 15, 1944.....	+6.1	+7.0	+8.9	+1.1	+3.4	+8.8	+8.6
May 15, 1942, to May 15, 1944.....	+7.8	+11.4	+8.6	-1.6	+4.7	+10.1	+8.1
January 15, 1941, to May 15, 1944.....	+24.0	+38.5	+36.0	+3.0	+8.9	+34.4	+18.7
August 15, 1939, to May 15, 1944.....	+26.8	+44.9	+36.6	+3.6	+12.6	+33.7	+26.1

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

² Changes through Mar. 15, 1944.

³ Rents surveyed at quarterly dates: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

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TABLE 3.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living, April 15–May 15, 1944, by Cities

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities.....	+0.4	+0.7	+0.1	-0.1	+1.1	+0.2
New England: Boston.....	+1	+1	-1	0	+8	+2
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo.....	+7	+1.3	0	0	+6.8	+2
New York.....	+4	+1.0	+1	-3	0	+2
Philadelphia.....	+2	+2	+7	-1.3	+8	+1
Pittsburgh.....	+1	-1	+1	0	0	+5
East North Central:						
Chicago.....	+2	+2	+2	0	0	+3
Cincinnati.....	-5	-1.3	0	0	0	+2
Cleveland.....	+1	+1	0	+1	+7	+2
Detroit.....	+5	+9	0	-1	+1.6	+2
West North Central:						
Kansas City.....	+5	+1.0	+3	0	+1.0	+2
Minneapolis.....	+4	+5	+1	+8	+1	+2
St. Louis.....	+2	+3	0	0	+1	+2
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore.....	+2	+1	+4	0	+6	+1
Savannah.....	-3	-9	-5	0	+7.9	+1
Washington, D. C.....	+4	+1.0	+1	0	0	+2
East South Central: Birmingham.....	+8	+1.8	+2	0	+6	+2
West South Central: Houston.....	+2	+4	0	0	+2	+2
Mountain: Denver.....	+9	+2.0	0	+5	0	+4
Pacific:						
Los Angeles.....	+1.2	+2.5	-1	0	+7.8	+2
San Francisco.....	+8	+1.8	0	0	0	+2
Seattle.....	+7	+1.5	0	+3	0	+4

¹ Based on indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

² Rents surveyed at quarterly dates: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

³ Based on prices for 56 cities collected on Tuesday nearest 15th of month.

⁴ Based on data for 21 cities.

⁵ Based on data for 34 cities.

⁶ Revised fuel indexes:

1943: Aug. 15.....	110.6	1943: Nov. 15.....	112.6	1944: Feb. 15.....	115.0
Sept. 15.....	110.6	Dec. 15.....	113.9	Mar. 15.....	114.2
Oct. 15.....	111.7	1944: Jan. 15.....	113.9	Apr. 15.....	114.2

TABLE 4.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living in Specified Periods, by Cities

City	May 15, 1943, to May 15, 1944	Aug. 15, 1939, to May 15, 1944	Jan. 1, 1941, to May 15, 1944	May 15, 1942, to May 15, 1944	Sept. 15, 1942, to May 15, 1944
Average: Large cities.....	-0.1	+26.8	+24.0	+7.8	+6.1
New England: Boston.....	-9	+24.8	+22.3	+6.9	+4.3
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo.....	-2.3	+27.7	+23.5	+4.4	+4.4
New York.....	+1.3	+27.1	+24.6	+11.0	+8.2
Philadelphia.....	-1.0	+26.4	+24.6	+7.8	+5.7
Pittsburgh.....	+4	+27.4	+23.9	+8.3	+6.7
East North Central:					
Chicago.....	-3	+25.7	+22.6	+6.5	+5.8
Cincinnati.....	+6	+28.0	+25.0	+7.4	+5.5
Cleveland.....	+7	+28.9	+26.4	+8.6	+7.8
Detroit.....	-1.3	+27.6	+24.5	+5.8	+6.2
West North Central:					
Kansas City.....	+7	+25.2	+25.4	+8.2	+7.6
Minneapolis.....	+3	+22.6	+20.0	+5.4	+4.6
St. Louis.....	-2	+26.2	+22.6	+7.1	+6.2
South Atlantic:					
Baltimore.....	-1.1	+28.5	+25.9	+7.3	+5.8
Savannah.....	+8	+33.9	+31.2	+10.0	+8.9
Washington, D. C.....	0	+25.5	+23.8	+7.8	+5.6
East South Central: Birmingham.....	+2.1	+30.4	+26.4	+8.2	+8.1
West South Central: Houston.....	-8	+22.5	+21.0	+6.2	+4.6
Mountain: Denver.....	+5	+26.8	+25.0	+8.1	+6.7
Pacific:					
Los Angeles.....	+1.3	+26.8	+24.3	+7.9	+4.7
San Francisco.....	+8	+30.0	+26.8	+9.8	+6.8
Seattle.....	-5	+28.4	+26.2	+6.3	+5.0

¹ Based on indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

Indexes of the cost of the various groups of items, by years 1935-43 and by months since January 1944, are shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, 1935 to May 1944

Year and month	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent ²	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1935.....	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936.....	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	96.7
1937.....	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938.....	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939.....	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940.....	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941.....	105.2	105.5	106.3	106.2	102.2	107.3	104.0
1942.....	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	122.2	110.9
1943.....	123.6	138.0	129.7	108.0	107.7	125.6	115.9
1944:							
Jan. 15.....	124.2	136.1	134.7	108.1	109.5	128.3	114.4
Feb. 15.....	123.8	134.5	135.2	108.1	110.3	128.7	113.7
Mar. 15.....	123.8	134.1	136.7	108.1	109.9	129.0	114.1
Apr. 15.....	124.5	134.6	136.9	(²)	109.9	133.0	120.7
May 15.....	125.0	135.5	137.0	(²)	109.8	134.5	121.9

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

² Rents surveyed at quarterly dates: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

Retail Prices of Food in May 1944

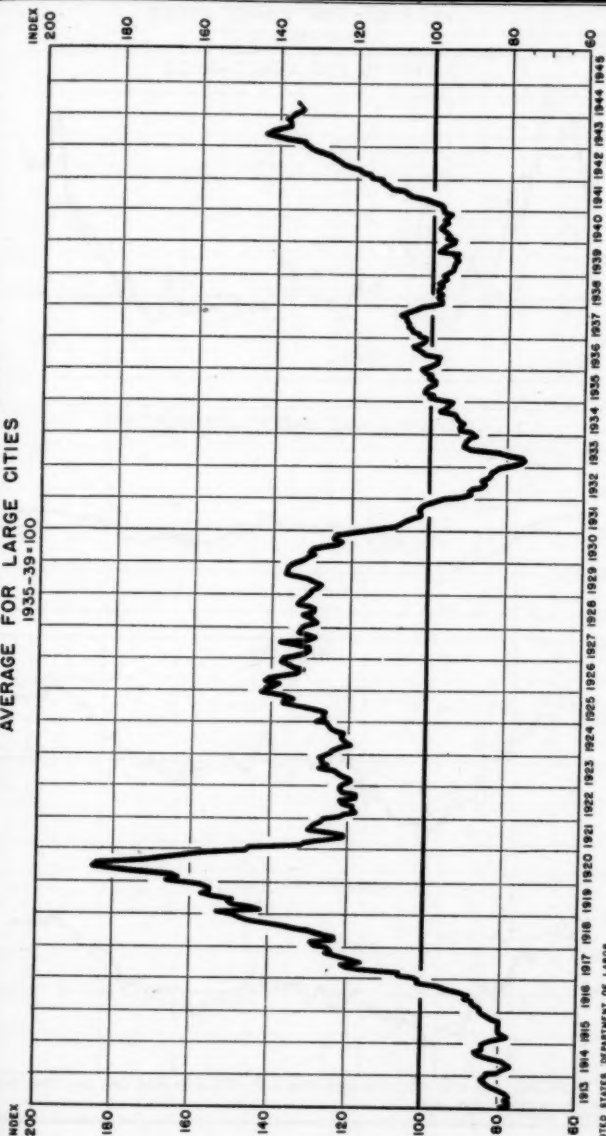
PERCENTAGE changes in retail food costs on May 16, 1944, as compared with costs in the previous month and in May 1943, are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Percent of Change in Retail Costs of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ by Commodity Groups, in Specified Periods

Commodity group	Apr. 18, 1944, to May 16, 1944	May 18, 1943, to May 16, 1944	Sept. 15, 1942, to May 16, 1944	Jan. 14, 1941, to May 16, 1944	Aug. 15, 1939, to May 16, 1944
All foods.....	+0.7	-5.2	+7.0	+38.5	+44.9
Cereals and bakery products.....	+1.1	+5	+2.6	+13.9	+15.7
Meats.....	+2	-5.8	-2	+28.9	+36.2
Beef and veal.....	-2	-9.4	-5.6	+8.7	+13.4
Pork.....	-2	-10.8	-9.8	+30.0	+37.3
Lamb.....	+1	-5.1	+5	+36.2	+38.0
Chickens.....	+3.7	+5.6	+16.6	+60.4	+64.8
Fish, fresh and canned.....	-4.7	0	+19.2	+68.0	+101.3
Dairy products.....	-1	-2.5	+4.5	+27.0	+42.4
Eggs.....	-4	-10.6	-18.1	+30.5	+40.1
Fruits and vegetables.....	+2.4	-9.4	+33.2	+85.2	+87.0
Fresh.....	+2.9	-11.0	+40.5	+96.0	+97.3
Canned.....	-2	-1.4	+4.4	+41.4	+41.0
Dried.....	+2	+3.5	+14.0	+64.2	+61.1
Beverages.....	-1	-2	+4	+35.7	+31.0
Fats and oils.....	-2	-2.4	+2.2	+33.5	+43.9
Sugar and sweets.....	-1	-9	-4	+32.7	+33.3

¹ The number of cities included in the index was changed from 51 to 56 in March 1943, with the necessary adjustments for maintaining comparability. At the same time the number of foods in the index was increased from 54 to 61.

RETAIL COST OF ALL FOODS
AVERAGE FOR LARGE CITIES
1935-39=100



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

935-43

4

Miscellaneous

98.1
98.7
101.0
101.5
100.7
101.1
104.0
110.9
115.9
118.4
118.7
119.1
120.7
122.0

is com-
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combined!

Aug. 15,
1939, to
May 15,
1944

+44.9
+15.7
+36.3
+19.4
+27.3
+36.0
+44.8
+101.3
+43.4
+48.1
+57.0
+57.3
+41.0
+41.1
+31.0
+41.9
+32.3

necessity
index was

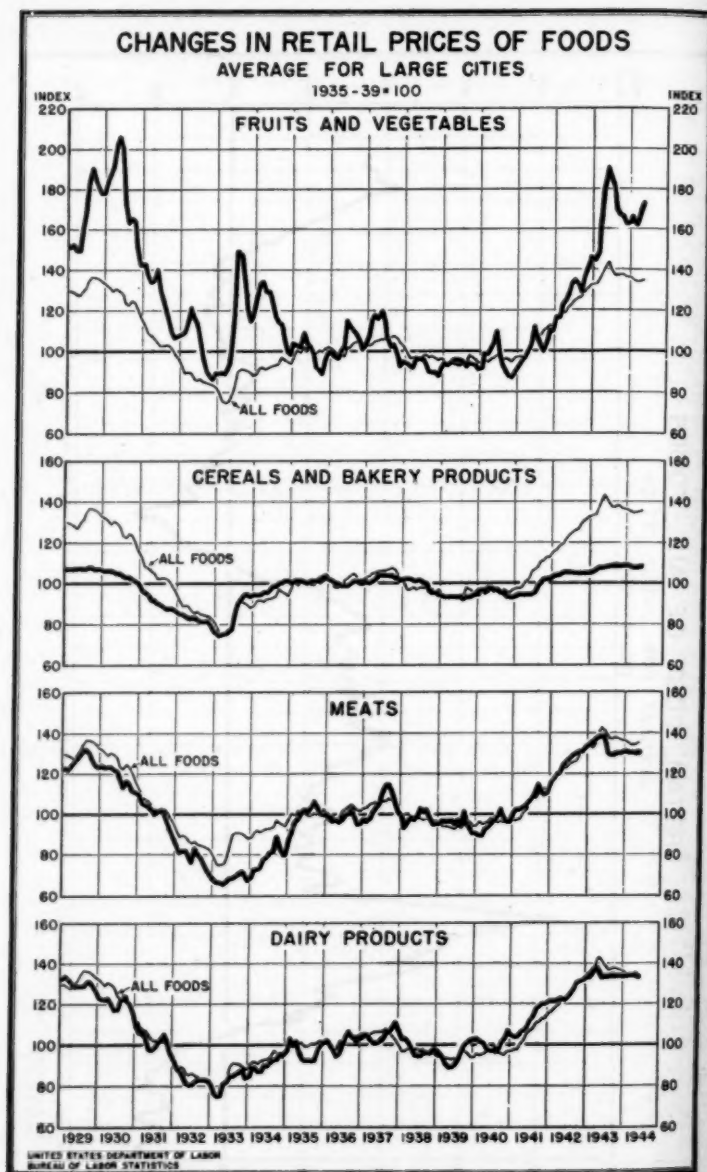


TABLE 2.—Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 56¹ Large Cities Combined,² by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates

[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1944		1943	1942	1941	1939
	May 16 ³	April 18	May 18	Sept. 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods.....	135.5	134.6	143.0	126.6	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products.....	108.1	108.0	107.6	105.4	94.9	93.4
Meats.....	130.3	130.0	138.3	130.6	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal.....	118.9	119.1	131.2	126.0	109.4	99.6
Pork.....	111.9	112.1	125.5	124.0	86.1	88.0
Lamb.....	134.4	134.3	141.6	133.7	98.7	98.8
Chickens.....	155.9	150.4	147.6	133.7	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned.....	200.5	210.4	200.5	168.2	118.7	99.6
Dairy products.....	133.6	133.6	136.9	127.7	105.1	93.1
Eggs.....	127.1	127.6	142.1	155.2	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables.....	172.8	168.8	190.8	129.7	93.3	92.4
Fresh.....	183.1	178.0	205.8	130.3	93.4	92.8
Canned.....	129.2	129.5	131.1	123.8	91.4	91.6
Dried.....	163.5	163.2	158.0	143.4	96.6	90.3
Beverages.....	124.3	124.4	124.5	123.8	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils.....	123.3	123.5	120.3	120.7	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets.....	126.5	126.6	127.6	127.0	95.3	95.6

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.² Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.³ Preliminary.⁴ Revised.TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined, ¹ May 1944 Compared With Earlier Months

Article	1944		1943	1941	1939
	May 16 ¹	Apr. 18	May 18	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Cereals and bakery products:					
Cereals:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Flour, wheat.....10 pounds..	65.2	65.1	60.8	41.4	35.8
Macaroni.....pound.....	15.7	15.7	15.3	13.8	14.0
Wheat cereal ²28 ounces..	23.3	23.3	23.7	23.5	24.2
Corn flakes.....8 ounces.....	6.5	6.5	6.8	7.1	7.0
Corn meal.....pound.....	6.1	6.0	5.6	4.2	4.0
Rice.....do.....	12.8	12.8	12.7	7.9	7.5
Rolled oats.....do.....	8.9	8.7	8.7	7.1	7.1
Flour, pancake ³20 ounces..	12.1	12.0	10.6	(⁴)	(⁴)
Bakery products:					
Bread, white.....pound.....	8.7	8.7	8.9	7.8	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat.....do.....	9.7	9.7	9.8	8.7	8.8
Bread, rye.....do.....	9.9	9.9	9.9	9.0	9.2
Vanilla cookies.....do.....	28.5	28.3	29.1	25.1	(⁴)
Soda crackers.....do.....	19.0	18.9	17.8	15.0	14.8
Meats:					
Beef:					
Round steak.....do.....	41.8	41.9	46.8	38.6	36.4
Rib roast.....do.....	33.7	33.8	37.7	31.5	28.9
Chuck roast.....do.....	29.0	29.2	31.8	25.2	22.5
Stew meat.....do.....	31.5	31.6	35.0	(⁴)	(⁴)
Liver.....do.....	37.1	37.4	37.5	(⁴)	(⁴)
Hamburger.....do.....	28.0	28.4	32.2	(⁴)	(⁴)
Veal:					
Cutlets.....do.....	45.5	45.6	51.3	45.2	42.5
Roast, boned and rolled.....do.....	35.3	35.7	37.7	(⁴)	(⁴)
Pork:					
Chops.....do.....	37.3	37.3	41.9	29.1	30.9
Bacon, sliced.....do.....	41.1	41.2	45.7	30.1	30.4
Ham, sliced.....do.....	51.0	51.3	59.3	45.1	46.4
Ham, whole.....do.....	35.4	35.6	39.8	26.2	27.4
Salt pork.....do.....	22.5	22.5	24.7	16.7	15.4
Liver.....do.....	22.1	22.1	23.6	(⁴)	(⁴)
Sausage.....do.....	38.2	38.4	38.3	(⁴)	(⁴)
Bologna, big.....do.....	35.2	34.3	33.8	(⁴)	(⁴)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ May 1944 Compared With Earlier Months—Continued

Article	1944		1943	1941	1939
	May 16 ²	Apr. 18	May 18	Jan. 14	Aug. 13
Meats—Continued.					
Lamb:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Leg.....pound.....	40.0	40.2	41.8	27.8	27.0
Rib chops.....do.....	45.2	45.3	48.6	35.0	36.7
Poultry: Roasting chickens.....do.....	46.5	45.0	45.4	31.1	30.9
Fish:					
Fish (fresh, frozen).....do.....	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Salmon, pink.....16 oz. can.....	24.1	24.1	24.0	15.7	12.8
Salmon, red.....do.....	42.9	43.1	41.4	26.4	23.1
Dairy products:					
Butter.....pound.....	50.0	50.1	55.6	38.0	30.7
Cheese.....do.....	36.0	36.2	38.4	27.0	24.7
Milk, fresh (delivered).....quart.....	15.6	15.6	15.6	13.0	12.0
Milk, fresh (store).....do.....	14.5	14.5	14.4	11.9	11.9
Milk, evaporated.....14½-oz. can.....	10.0	10.0	10.1	7.1	6.7
Eggs: Eggs, fresh.....dozen.....	44.9	45.0	50.2	34.9	32.0
Fruits and vegetables:					
Fresh fruits:					
Apples.....pound.....	11.8	11.8	12.9	5.2	4.4
Bananas.....do.....	11.4	11.2	11.7	6.6	6.1
Oranges.....dozen.....	46.8	45.1	42.2	27.3	31.6
Grapefruit.....each.....	8.7	7.9	7.8	(⁹)	(⁹)
Fresh vegetables:					
Beans, green.....pound.....	19.5	20.5	17.4	14.0	7.3
Cabbage.....do.....	5.6	5.6	11.5	3.4	3.9
Carrots.....bunch.....	8.4	7.2	8.2	6.0	4.6
Lettuce.....head.....	12.3	11.1	16.5	8.4	8.4
Onions.....pound.....	9.0	9.9	8.6	3.6	3.8
Potatoes.....15 pounds.....	60.4	63.2	92.5	29.2	24.4
Spinach.....pound.....	6.2	10.9	11.6	7.3	7.4
Sweetpotatoes.....do.....	12.2	11.3	17.9	8.0	4.3
Beets.....bunch.....	10.5	8.8	11.6	(⁹)	(⁹)
Canned fruits:					
Peaches.....No. 2½ can.....	27.3	27.3	26.5	16.5	17.1
Pineapple.....do.....	27.5	27.5	28.7	20.9	21.0
Grapefruit juice.....No. 2 can.....	14.4	14.4	14.0	(⁹)	(⁹)
Canned vegetables:					
Beans, green.....No. 2 can.....	13.1	13.2	15.0	10.0	10.0
Corn.....do.....	14.4	14.4	14.0	10.7	10.4
Peas.....do.....	13.2	13.3	15.5	13.2	13.8
Tomatoes.....do.....	11.9	12.0	12.8	8.4	8.6
Soup, vegetable.....11-oz. can.....	13.4	13.4	13.1	(⁹)	(⁹)
Dried fruits: Prunes.....pound.....	17.1	16.8	16.4	9.6	8.8
Dried vegetables:					
Navy beans.....pound.....	10.6	10.6	10.0	6.5	4.6
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle.....ounce.....	3.7	3.7	3.7	(⁹)	(⁹)
Beverages:					
Coffee.....pound.....	30.0	29.9	30.0	20.7	22.3
Tea.....½ pound.....	23.8	23.8	21.5	17.6	17.2
Cocoa.....do.....	10.1	10.0	9.2	9.1	8.6
Fats and oils:					
Lard.....pound.....	18.7	18.8	19.1	9.3	9.9
Shortening other than lard—					
In cartons.....do.....	20.1	20.1	20.2	11.3	11.7
In other containers.....do.....	24.7	24.7	24.3	15.3	20.2
Salad dressing.....pint.....	25.5	25.6	25.2	20.1	(⁹)
Oleomargarine.....pound.....	24.2	24.1	23.5	15.6	16.6
Peanut butter.....do.....	28.5	28.4	32.5	17.9	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad.....pint.....	30.1	30.6	30.5	(⁹)	(⁹)
Sugar and sweets:					
Sugar.....pound.....	6.8	6.8	6.8	5.1	4.2
Corn sirup.....24 ounces.....	15.8	15.8	15.6	13.6	13.7
Molasses.....18 ounces.....	15.8	15.9	15.6	13.4	13.4
Apple butter.....16 ounces.....	13.2	13.2	12.9	(⁹)	(⁹)

¹ Data are based on 51 cities combined prior to January 1943.² Preliminary.³ Not included in index.⁴ First priced, February 1943.⁵ Not priced.⁶ Composite price not computed.⁷ Revised.⁸ First priced, October 1941.

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

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TABLE 4.—Indexes of Average Retail Costs of All Foods, by Cities,¹ on Specified Dates

[1935-39=100]

City	1944		1943	1941	1939
	May 16 ²	Apr. 18	May 18	Jan 14	Aug. 15
United States.....	135.5	134.6	143.0	97.8	93.5
New England:					
Boston.....	129.6	129.5	138.1	95.2	93.5
Bridgeport.....	131.4	131.4	144.7	96.5	93.2
Fall River.....	129.8	130.0	140.5	97.5	95.4
Manchester.....	131.4	130.8	142.3	96.6	94.9
New Haven.....	133.1	132.4	145.7	95.7	93.7
Portland, Maine.....	131.4	131.2	140.3	95.3	95.9
Providence.....	131.9	132.1	141.0	96.3	93.7
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo.....	134.2	132.5	147.8	100.2	94.5
Newark.....	137.8	137.6	142.4	98.8	95.6
New York.....	137.0	135.7	143.3	99.5	95.8
Philadelphia.....	132.8	132.5	141.6	95.0	93.0
Pittsburgh.....	134.6	134.8	142.4	98.0	92.5
Rochester.....	129.5	128.5	139.6	99.9	92.3
Seranton.....	135.5	135.4	148.3	97.5	92.1
East North Central:					
Chicago.....	134.2	133.9	141.1	98.2	92.3
Cincinnati.....	133.7	135.4	138.3	96.5	90.4
Cleveland.....	141.9	141.7	146.3	99.2	93.6
Columbus, Ohio.....	127.1	127.6	136.3	93.4	88.1
Detroit.....	132.4	131.2	143.4	97.0	90.6
Indianapolis.....	132.2	132.1	140.2	98.2	90.7
Milwaukee.....	134.4	132.1	141.9	98.9	91.1
Peoria.....	138.2	137.5	148.7	99.0	93.4
Springfield, Ill.....	140.5	140.2	148.5	96.2	94.1
West North Central:					
Cedar Rapids.....	136.3	136.2	144.3	95.9	-----
Kansas City.....	131.4	130.1	137.9	92.4	91.5
Minneapolis.....	129.5	128.9	134.9	99.0	95.0
Omaha.....	131.2	131.0	137.9	97.9	92.3
St. Louis.....	137.8	137.4	144.7	99.2	93.8
St. Paul.....	127.9	127.3	134.8	98.6	94.3
Wichita.....	145.5	144.2	150.7	97.2	-----
South Atlantic:					
Atlanta.....	135.4	134.6	142.9	94.3	92.5
Baltimore.....	140.5	140.3	152.6	97.9	94.7
Charleston, S. C.....	130.7	132.1	140.3	95.9	95.1
Jacksonville.....	143.0	141.4	151.5	98.8	95.8
Norfolk.....	142.7	143.8	153.3	95.8	93.6
Richmond.....	131.9	131.6	141.5	93.7	92.2
Savannah.....	140.4	150.8	153.8	100.5	96.7
Washington, D. C.....	134.1	132.8	142.5	97.7	94.1
Winston-Salem.....	134.2	132.9	140.0	93.7	-----
East South Central:					
Birmingham.....	138.5	136.1	140.7	96.0	90.7
Jackson.....	140.4	141.2	153.0	105.3	-----
Knoxville.....	152.7	151.8	156.6	97.1	-----
Louisville.....	130.8	131.8	141.5	95.5	92.1
Memphis.....	143.0	141.3	150.1	94.2	89.7
Mobile.....	143.4	143.4	149.9	97.9	95.5
West South Central:					
Dallas.....	133.3	131.6	138.2	92.6	91.7
Houston.....	135.9	135.3	143.7	102.6	97.8
Little Rock.....	133.9	132.9	141.8	95.6	94.0
New Orleans.....	148.4	148.5	152.5	101.9	97.6
Mountain:					
Butte.....	133.0	133.2	138.3	98.7	94.1
Denver.....	139.3	136.6	143.8	94.8	92.7
Salt Lake City.....	139.2	138.6	144.7	97.5	94.6
Pacific:					
Los Angeles.....	142.0	138.6	146.2	101.8	94.6
Portland, Oreg.....	144.7	142.2	153.6	101.7	96.1
San Francisco.....	144.7	142.2	148.0	99.6	93.8
Seattle.....	141.3	139.2	150.3	101.0	94.5

¹ Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city (54 foods prior to March 1943), weighted to represent total purchases of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparisons.

² Preliminary.

³ Revised.

⁴ June 1940=100.

⁵ Includes Portsmouth and Newport News.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ 1913 to May 1944*
[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913.....	79.9	1928.....	130.8	1943:	
1914.....	81.8	1929.....	132.5	January.....	133.0
1915.....	80.9	1930.....	126.0	February.....	132.6
1916.....	90.8	1931.....	103.9	March.....	137.4
1917.....	116.9	1932.....	86.5	April.....	140.6
				May.....	143.0
1918.....	134.4	1933.....	84.1	June.....	141.9
1919.....	149.8	1934.....	93.7	July.....	139.0
1920.....	168.8	1935.....	100.4	August.....	137.2
1921.....	128.3	1936.....	101.3	September.....	137.4
1922.....	119.9	1937.....	105.3	October.....	138.2
				November.....	137.3
1923.....	124.0	1938.....	97.8	December.....	137.1
1924.....	122.8	1939.....	95.2	1944:	
1925.....	132.9	1940.....	96.6	January.....	136.1
1926.....	137.4	1941.....	105.5	February.....	134.6
1927.....	132.3	1942.....	123.9	March.....	134.1
		1943.....	138.0	April.....	134.6
				May.....	133.5

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

Income and Expenditures of Steelworkers, 1943

THE United Steelworkers of America has recently issued a report¹ on its survey of the incomes and expenditures of steelworkers late in 1943, the findings of which as to sex, color, place of employment, and average weekly earnings correspond very closely with averages from Government and industry sources for basic steel plants.

The report makes a valuable contribution to the information available on consumer incomes and expenditures during the war period. It is based on the first survey on this subject which has been undertaken since the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Home Economics cooperated in a Nation-wide study of Spending and Saving in Wartime in the spring of 1942. Data are presented on annual earnings for the year ending November 30, 1943, and on family expenditures for 3 months in the fall of 1943. The sample was chosen under the direction of a member of the staff of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the schedule and instructions to field agents were prepared in cooperation with the Bureau.

Coverage of Study

Three samples with 500 steelworkers in each were selected from the mailing list of the union's official publication, *Steel Labor*, in such a way as to give adequate representation to workers in all types of basic steel plants.² Representatives of the union visited the homes listed for the 1,000 workers whose names were drawn in the first two samples; of these, 589 supplied usable information on income. Nearly two-thirds of the 411 from whom information was not obtained had

¹ Income and Expenditure Study of Steelworkers' Families for September-November 1943, conducted by the Research Department of the United Steelworkers of America.

² Union members working in the few fabricating plants whose industrial-relations policy follows that of parent producers of basic steel were also included, as were iron-ore miners in the Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Michigan areas.

May 1944

All-foods
index

133.0
133.8
137.4
140.6
143.0
141.9
130.0
137.2
137.4
138.2
137.5
137.1

136.1
134.6
134.1
134.6
133.5

changed their place of employment or moved to a new locality and could not be found. Another 18 percent were in the armed forces.

More than 7 in every 8 of the steelworkers studied were members of a family. Slightly over one-fifth of the families reporting on income contained 2 members, and an equal number contained 5 or more persons. The average family size, including one-person families, was 3.44; excluding one-person families, 3.76.

Information on family expenditures was requested from steelworkers meeting the following criteria:

1. The steelworker had been employed in the steel industry for the 3 months covered by the survey, although he might not have worked steadily, because of illness or other reasons.
2. The steelworker's earnings represented at least 90 percent of total family income.
3. The steelworker had two or more dependents living at home, of which at least one was a child under 16.
4. The steelworker did not spend more than \$5 a month on dependents living away from home.
5. The steelworker's household was independent and did not include roomers, boarders, or adult relatives who managed their own finances separately.

Expenditure data were obtained from 187 steelworkers, or about one-third of those supplying information on income. The families in the expenditure sample averaged 4.34 persons, as compared with 3.76 for families of two or more persons in the entire group studied.

Incomes and Expenditures of Groups Studied

During the 12-month period ending November 30, 1943, the steelworkers received earnings of \$2,584.68 on the average, or \$49.71 per week.³ Average weekly earnings were somewhat higher for the workers in "Little Steel"⁴ than for those employed by the U. S. Steel Corporation, or by the rest of the steel industry—\$52.29 as compared with \$48.59 and \$48.36. The relatively high earnings in "Little Steel" may be accounted for by the larger proportion of workers who were paid, in whole or in part, on an incentive-payment system. Of the entire group, 45 percent were paid in that manner. Their straight-time hourly earnings averaged \$1.15, while those paid on a flat hourly system received \$0.95 per hour, on the average. Approximately two-thirds of the steelworkers earned \$1.05 or less per hour, or \$50.94 or less per week.

For the 3-month period, September–December 1943, weekly earnings averaged \$54.43. The difference between this figure and the average weekly earnings (\$49.71) for the whole sample for the year ending November 30, 1943, was attributed in large part to the fact that weekly hours worked in the steel industry (as reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics) averaged 45.7 during the fall quarter as compared with 44.1 in the year period. It may also have been due, in part, to the fact that the steelworkers with children were an older and therefore more experienced group, with higher average earnings. Furthermore, it is probable that very few of the steel workers meeting

³The average weekly earnings reported by the steelworkers surveyed correspond very closely with the Bureau of Labor Statistics average of \$49.23 for workers in blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills during the same 12-month period.

⁴Bethlehem Steel Co., Republic Steel Corp., Youngstown Sheet & Tube Co., and Inland Steel Co.

the specifications for the group covered by the expenditure study were women, and women in the steel industry do not work in the higher-paid positions.

Other family income averaged \$1.61 per week during the fall quarter, making a total income of \$56.04 for the families supplying information on expenditures. Income and other personal taxes accounted for \$4.03 per week, leaving \$52.01 available for current spending, insurance, bond purchases, and other savings.

Expenditures for current consumption, as reported, amounted to \$52.18 per family.⁵ Insurance premium payments, which were treated as expenditures, averaged \$2.36. Total expenditures, exclusive of taxes, thus amounted to \$54.54.

Average Weekly Income and Expenditure of Steelworkers, September–November 1943

Income	Amount	Expenditures, taxes, and savings	Amount
Family earnings:		Expenditures:	
Steelworker's wages.....	\$54.43	Food.....	\$19.81
Family earnings other than steelworker's.....	1.61	Clothing.....	5.30
		Housing.....	5.84
		Fuel, light, and ice.....	3.06
		Housefurnishings.....	3.24
		Miscellaneous.....	13.23
		Taxes.....	4.00
		Insurance.....	2.26
Total earnings.....	56.04	Total expenditures.....	58.57
Debt:		Savings:	
Bonds redeemed.....	1.14	Bonds purchased.....	4.71
Previous savings spent.....	3.45	Other savings.....	.42
Money borrowed.....	.88	Payment previous debt.....	.58
Including amount owed stores.....	1.23		
Total debt.....	6.70	Total savings.....	5.61
Balancing difference ¹	1.74		
Total income.....	64.48	Total outgo.....	64.48

¹ In family expenditure studies a balancing difference is required, because families cannot over a period of time recall all of their expenditures to the last cent. The balancing difference used in this study is \$1.74 a week, or less than 3 percent. The 1934-36 family expenditure study of the Bureau of Labor Statistics allowed a balancing difference of as much as 5 percent (see Bureau Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 638: "Money Disbursements of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, 1934-36, footnote, p. 29, and "Balancing Difference" p. 386).

Bond purchases averaged \$4.71 per week for all families, but redemptions of \$1.14 reduced the net amount put into bonds to \$3.57. Ninety-six percent of the families surveyed bought bonds, 51 percent drew on past savings during the quarter, and 14 percent made savings other than through bond purchases. For all families there was an average net decrease in other savings, of \$2.83 per week. There was an average net increase in outstanding debts for all families, of \$1.53. Since insurance was treated as an expenditure, the report shows an average net deficit of 79 cents per family per week.

It is the practice of the Bureau of Labor Statistics to treat insurance payments and mortgage-principal payments on owned homes as savings. If the \$2.36 for "social-security deductions, group-insurance payments at the place of employment, and small policies for members of the family" is treated not as current expenditure but as an increase in assets, the steelworkers appear to have had a net surplus of \$1.57 (\$2.36—\$0.79). The survey provides no informa-

⁵ The expenditure data collected did not include the total cost of items bought on installment plans, but only the payments made during the 3-month period.

tion on the amount of mortgage-principal payments as distinct from interest, taxes, insurance, and repairs by the home owners covered in the survey (40.6 percent of all the families). On the basis of data for 11 cities (in which steelworkers are important in the wage-earner population) covered in the 1934-36 survey of money disbursements of wage earners and clerical workers, it is estimated that mortgage-principal payments averaged 62 cents per week, out of the total housing expense of \$5.84. If the balance sheet is further adjusted to include these estimated payments as savings rather than as current housing expense, the net savings would be estimated at \$2.19 per week.

Money outlays for food during the 1943 fall quarter averaged \$18.51 per week. This is equivalent to slightly over 20 cents per meal for each family member. Food represented about 36 percent, both of expenditures for current consumption and of income after taxes.

Housing costs averaged \$5.84 per week, according to the survey. Tenant families were paying an average monthly rental of \$21.99. Those living in their own homes were spending an average of \$31.20 per month for repairs and all other payments (\$23.46 when estimated payments on the principal of the mortgage are excluded). The report points out that—

Housing conditions are generally poor, and there is an indication that (1) steelworkers are forced to live in crowded districts near the mills or in small farmhouses on the outskirts of the town and (2) they try to compensate for their surroundings on the outside by having within their homes as many conveniences in the form of equipment as possible. Thus, while only 68.4 percent of the families report inside bathing facilities, 95.7 percent have radios and 72.2 percent have mechanical refrigerators. Some of this equipment is purchased on installment plans. During the 3 months surveyed, 23 percent of the families were buying equipment on an installment basis and owed at the end of November an average of \$82.28 per family.

Other costs of running the house amounted to \$7.80 per week, considerably more than housing proper. They were distributed as follows:

Fuel, light, and refrigeration	\$3.05
Household operation	1.34
Paid household help (including dressmaker)17
Housefurnishings and equipment	3.24
Total	\$7.80

Clothing purchases by steelworkers during the fall of 1943 accounted for 16 percent of the income minus income taxes, and current expenses, respectively. On the average, \$108.27 per family was spent during the 3 months—\$113.60 for women, \$112.00 for men, \$74.60 for girls, and \$66.50 for boys. It is noted, however, that clothing for the entire year might not take so large a proportion of family expenditures as shown for the fall months when school and winter clothing is usually bought. Special work clothes, safety shoes, and work gloves loomed large in the steelworkers' clothing expenses.

Transportation cost, on the average, \$2.65 per week. About half of the families owned cars, for which they spent \$2.93 a week for upkeep and maintenance, and an additional \$1.12 for other types of transportation. Payments on cars purchased were reported by only 2 percent of the steelworkers. Transportation expense averaged

\$1.33 per week for steelworkers without cars, and \$0.42 for their wives and children. Thus, most of the cost was for travel to and from work. Although over one-fifth of the steelworkers lived within 2 miles of the place of work, the average distance between home and mill was 6 miles for the entire group of families.

Medical-care outlays averaged \$2.50 per week, or nearly 5 percent of income minus income taxes. Nevertheless, 53 percent of the families reported that medical care required at the time of the survey was being postponed for financial reasons. Barber-shop and beauty-parlor services and personal-care supplies took another \$1.16.

Recreational expenditures were unusually small, averaging only \$1.66 per family per week. Of this, a considerable share went for newspapers, magazines, and other reading material. In addition, \$1.45 per week was used for alcoholic beverages and \$1.30 for tobacco.

Union dues, gifts, and contributions together absorbed about 2 percent of income, or \$1.24 per week.

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Wholesale Prices

Wholesale Prices in May 1944

A FURTHER gain of 0.1 percent was recorded in the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of commodity prices at the primary market¹ level during May. Increased prices for essential building materials, coal, hides, and meats largely accounted for the advance. Although the all-commodity index now stands at the high point of the year, 104.0 percent of the 1926 average, it is slightly lower than in May 1943. In the nearly 5 years of war, the combined index has risen almost 39 percent.

Most of the important price changes during the month were the result of OPA action in adjusting ceilings. The building materials group rose 0.4 percent, largely because of an upward revision in prices for cement in the Northeastern States, and in lumber and brick ceilings to cover increased production costs.

Quotations on coal continued to reflect higher production costs and the fuel and lighting materials group index advanced 0.2 percent. Average prices for foods and for hides and leather products rose 0.1 percent. Seasonal advances in prices for fresh fruits and vegetables, together with increased prices for condensed milk and for dressed poultry, accounted for the rise in the foods group, while higher prices for sheepskins were responsible for the increase in the hides and leather products group index.

Led by a decline of 0.8 percent in prices for livestock and poultry, the farm products group index dropped 0.2 percent during the month. Egg prices were seasonally lower. Ceiling prices on heavy grade hogs were reduced and the rye market weakened under heavy selling and favorable crop reports.

Prices for agricultural commodities declined, causing the index for raw materials to fall 0.2 percent, while those for semimanufactured articles and finished products rose 0.1 percent.

Average prices for farm products in primary markets declined 0.2 percent during the month, largely because of weakening livestock markets. Heavy hogs decreased when OPA lowered the ceiling prices 75 cents a cwt. on weights over 240 pounds. Prices for sheep fell more than 3 percent and for cows almost 1 percent. Rye prices declined more than 6 percent as a result of favorable crop reports and heavy liquidation. Grains, however, advanced fractionally because of increased prices for wheat. Quotations were also higher for steers, for live poultry in the New York market, and for light hogs.

Food prices at the wholesale level rose 0.1 percent with meats up 0.4 percent; fruits and vegetables, 0.2 percent; and dairy products,

¹ The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data for the most part represent prices prevailing in the "first commercial transaction." They are prices quoted in primary markets, at principal distribution points.

0.1 percent. Higher prices were reported for condensed milk, oatmeal, white potatoes, lemons, and dressed poultry. Prices were lower for fresh milk in the Chicago market, and for flour, oranges, onions, fresh and cured pork, and eggs.

Higher prices for sheepskins and goatskins resulted in an increase of 0.1 percent in the hides and leather products group index.

No changes were reported in prices for textiles during May.

Continued advances for anthracite and for bituminous coal in certain areas accounted for an increase of 0.2 percent in the fuel and lighting materials group index.

In the metals and metal products group a further decline of nearly 9 percent in prices for quicksilver was offset by higher prices for some types of farm machinery. The group index remained unchanged at 103.7 percent of the 1926 average.

The largest group increase, 0.4 percent, was recorded in the building materials group index. Cement prices averaged 2.7 percent higher when ceiling prices were adjusted upward in the northeastern part of the country. OPA action was also responsible for increased prices for lumber, with higher quotations reported for certain types of Douglas fir, western pine, southern pine and gum, also for millwork. Minor increases occurred in prices for common building brick in some localities. Rosin prices advanced more than 5 percent and turpentine rose fractionally.

The chemical and allied products markets were steady during the month.

The index for the housefurnishing goods group remained unchanged at 104.3 percent of the 1926 average. Prices for both furniture and furnishings were stationary.

Taken as a whole, average prices for commodities in primary markets moved within a very narrow range from May 1943 to May 1944. During the 12-month period, the all-commodity index dropped 0.1 percent. Except in a few instances agricultural commodity prices were generally lower than in May of last year. Fruits and vegetables and meats dropped about 8 percent and livestock over 6 percent. Grains, on the contrary, rose nearly 15 percent. Following the rise in the grain markets, cattle feed advanced 6 percent. Prices for most industrial commodities were somewhat higher than in May 1943. Drugs and pharmaceuticals rose over 33 percent as a result of increased excise taxes. Lumber advanced more than 11 percent during the year when OPA raised the ceiling prices to stimulate production and to cover increased costs of operation. OPA action also accounted for an increase of about 7 percent in coal and coke prices. From May 1943 to May 1944 average prices for raw materials fell nearly 1 percent, while semimanufactured articles rose about 1 percent. Finished products increased only 0.2 percent during the year.

Marked increases have taken place in nearly all classes of commodities since the outbreak of the war. Among the outstanding price increases were 185 percent for drugs and pharmaceuticals; over 151 percent for grains and for fats and oils; 133 percent for cattle feed; about 117 percent for fruits and vegetables; nearly 71 percent for lumber; about 74 percent for cotton goods; more than 62 percent for dairy products; 49 percent for woolen and worsted goods; over 44 percent for meats and hides and skins; and over 30 percent for cereal products, clothing, anthracite, and crude rubber. Since the beginning

of the war, prices for raw materials have risen about 70 percent and for semimanufactured articles and finished products, more than 25 percent.

Percentage comparisons of the May 1944 level of wholesale prices with April 1944, May 1943, and August 1939, with corresponding index numbers are given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, May 1944, Compared with April 1944, May 1943, and August 1939

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	May 1944	April 1944	Percent of change	May 1943	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of change
All commodities	104.0	103.9	+0.1	104.1	-0.1	75.0	+38.7
Farm products	122.9	123.2	-0.2	125.7	-2.2	61.0	+101.5
Grains	129.7	129.6	+1	113.1	+14.7	51.5	+151.8
Livestock and poultry	122.6	123.6	-0.8	130.5	-6.1	66.0	+85.8
Other farm products	120.4	120.3	+1	125.2	-3.8	60.1	+100.3
Food	105.0	104.9	+1	110.5	-5.0	67.2	+56.3
Dairy products	110.3	110.2	+0.1	113.1	-2.5	67.9	+62.4
Cereal products	95.0	95.2	-0.2	93.6	+1.5	71.9	+32.1
Fruits and vegetables	126.8	126.5	+0.3	137.7	-7.9	58.5	+116.8
Meats	106.6	106.2	+0.4	115.9	-8.0	73.7	+44.6
Other foods	91.9	92.2	-0.3	96.4	-4.7	60.3	+52.4
Hides and leather products	117.0	116.9	+0.1	117.8	-0.7	92.7	+26.2
Shoes	126.3	125.3	+0.9	126.4	-0.1	100.8	+25.3
Hides and skins	111.9	111.2	+0.6	116.0	-3.5	77.2	+44.9
Leather	101.3	101.3	0	101.3	0	84.0	+20.6
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	0	115.2	0	97.1	+18.6
Textile products	97.8	97.8	0	97.4	+0.4	67.8	+44.2
Clothing	107.0	107.0	0	107.0	0	81.5	+31.3
Cotton goods	113.9	113.9	0	112.6	+1.2	65.5	+73.9
Hosiery and underwear	70.5	70.5	0	70.5	0	61.5	+14.6
Rayon	30.3	30.3	0	30.3	0	28.5	+6.3
Silk	(1)	(1)	---	(1)	---	44.3	---
Woolen and worsted goods	112.5	112.5	0	112.5	0	75.5	+49.0
Other textile products	100.5	100.5	0	98.7	+1.8	63.7	+57.8
Fuel and lighting materials	83.2	83.0	+0.2	80.8	+3.0	72.6	+14.6
Anthracite	96.4	95.8	+0.6	89.7	+7.5	72.1	+33.7
Bituminous coal	120.4	120.3	+0.1	116.1	+3.7	96.0	+25.4
Coke	130.7	130.7	0	122.4	+6.8	104.2	+25.4
Electricity	(1)	(1)	---	59.5	---	75.8	---
Gas	(1)	77.1	---	77.5	---	86.7	---
Petroleum and products	64.0	64.0	0	62.5	+2.4	51.7	+23.8
Metals and metal products	103.7	103.7	0	103.8	-0.1	93.2	+11.3
Agricultural implements	97.2	97.2	0	96.9	+0.3	93.5	+4.0
Farm machinery	98.4	98.3	+0.1	98.0	+0.4	94.7	+3.9
Iron and steel	97.1	97.1	0	97.2	-0.1	95.1	+2.1
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	+21.9
Nonferrous metals	85.8	85.8	0	86.0	-0.2	74.6	+15.0
Plumbing and heating	92.4	91.8	+0.7	90.4	+2.2	79.3	+16.5
Building materials	115.7	115.2	+0.5	110.5	+4.7	89.6	+29.1
Brick and tile	100.5	100.3	+0.2	98.9	+1.6	90.5	+11.0
Cement	96.4	93.9	+2.5	93.9	+2.7	91.3	+5.6
Lumber	154.0	153.4	+0.6	138.1	+11.5	91.1	+70.9
Paint and paint materials	104.7	104.4	+0.3	102.2	+2.4	82.1	+27.5
Plumbing and heating	92.4	91.8	+0.6	90.4	+2.2	79.3	+16.5
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	103.0	102.8	+0.2	101.6	+1.4	89.5	+15.1
Chemicals and allied products	105.4	105.4	0	100.2	+5.2	74.2	+42.0
Chemicals	96.3	96.3	0	96.4	-0.1	83.8	+14.9
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	220.1	220.1	0	165.1	+33.3	77.1	+185.5
Fertilizer materials	81.4	81.4	0	80.0	+1.8	65.5	+24.3
Mixed fertilizers	86.3	86.3	0	85.8	+0.5	73.1	+18.1
Oils and fats	102.0	102.0	0	102.0	0	40.6	+151.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, May 1944, Compared with April 1944, May 1943, and August 1939—Continued*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	May 1944	April 1944	Percent of change	May 1943	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of change
Housefurnishing goods	104.3	104.3	0	102.7	+1.6	85.6	+21.8
Furnishings	107.2	107.2	0	107.3	- .1	90.0	+19.1
Furniture	101.4	101.4	0	98.0	+3.5	81.1	+28.0
Miscellaneous	93.5	93.5	0	91.9	+1.7	73.3	+27.0
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	0	73.0	0	60.5	+20.7
Cattle feed	159.6	159.6	0	150.6	+6.0	68.4	+132.3
Paper and pulp	107.2	107.2	0	104.3	+2.8	80.0	+34.0
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	0	46.2	0	34.9	+33.4
Other miscellaneous	96.8	96.7	+ .1	95.2	+1.7	81.3	+19.1
Raw materials	113.0	113.2	- .2	114.0	- .9	66.5	+69.9
Semimanufactured Articles	93.7	93.6	+ .1	93.0	+ .8	74.5	+25.8
Manufactured products	100.9	100.8	+ .1	100.7	+ .2	70.1	+27.6
All commodities other than farm products	99.7	99.6	+ .1	99.2	+ .5	77.9	+28.0
All commodities other than farm products and foods	98.5	98.4	+ .1	96.7	+1.9	80.1	+23.0

¹ Data not available. ² Revised.*Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to May 1944*

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1943, and by months from May 1943 to May 1944, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foodstuffs	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting materials	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.6
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	85.5	77.3	78.9
1941	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	78.2	99.4	103.2	84.6	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.0	78.5	103.8	110.2	97.1	102.4	89.7	98.9
1943	122.6	106.6	117.5	97.4	80.8	103.8	111.4	100.3	102.7	92.2	103.1
1943											
May	125.7	110.5	117.8	97.4	80.8	103.8	110.5	100.2	102.7	91.9	104.1
June	126.2	109.6	117.8	97.4	81.0	103.8	110.6	100.0	102.8	91.8	103.8
July	125.0	107.2	117.8	97.4	81.0	103.7	110.7	100.1	102.6	92.3	103.2
August	123.5	105.8	117.8	97.4	80.9	103.7	112.2	100.2	102.6	92.6	103.1
September	123.1	105.0	117.8	97.5	81.0	103.7	112.5	100.3	102.6	93.0	103.1
October	122.2	105.1	117.8	97.6	81.0	103.7	112.7	100.4	102.6	93.1	103.0
November	121.4	105.8	116.5	97.7	81.2	103.8	113.1	100.3	102.8	93.2	102.9
December	121.8	105.6	117.0	97.7	82.1	103.8	113.4	100.4	102.8	93.3	103.2
1944											
January	121.8	104.9	117.2	97.7	82.3	103.7	113.5	100.4	104.5	93.2	103.3
February	122.5	104.5	116.9	97.7	83.1	103.7	113.6	100.4	104.2	93.4	103.6
March	123.6	104.6	116.9	97.8	83.0	103.7	114.2	100.4	104.3	93.5	103.8
April	123.2	104.9	116.9	97.8	83.0	103.7	115.2	105.4	104.3	93.5	103.9
May	122.9	106.0	117.0	97.8	83.2	103.7	115.7	105.4	104.3	93.5	104.0

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 8 and 9 of Bulletin No. 736—Wholesale Prices, July to December 1942.

TABLE 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities
[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1943—Con.					
1929.....	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	July.....	113.6	92.8	99.6	98.3	96.9
1932.....	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	Aug.....	112.7	92.9	98.7	98.5	97.1
1933.....	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	Sept.....	112.4	92.9	99.9	98.6	97.2
1935.....	79.9	78.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	Oct.....	111.9	92.9	100.0	98.7	97.3
1937.....	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	Nov.....	111.3	92.9	100.2	98.8	97.4
1938.....	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	Dec.....	112.1	93.1	100.2	99.0	97.6
1939.....	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3						
1940.....	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	1944:					
1941.....	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	Jan.....	112.2	93.2	100.2	99.1	97.8
1942.....	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	Feb.....	112.8	93.4	100.4	99.3	98.0
1943.....	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9	Mar.....	113.4	93.7	100.5	99.3	98.1
May.....	114.0	93.0	100.7	99.2	96.7	Apr.....	113.2	93.6	100.8	99.6	98.4
June.....	114.3	92.8	100.1	98.7	96.8	May.....	113.0	93.7	100.9	99.7	98.5

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during April and May 1944 are shown by the index numbers in table 4. These indexes are not averaged to obtain an index for the month but are computed only to indicate the fluctuations from week to week.

TABLE 4.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, April and May 1944
[1926=100]

Commodity group	May 27	May 20	May 13	May 6	Apr. 29	Apr. 22	Apr. 15	Apr. 8	Apr. 1
All commodities.....	103.9	103.8	103.6	103.7	103.7	103.6	103.8	103.7	103.6
Farm products.....	123.7	123.3	122.4	123.3	123.1	122.9	124.5	124.1	123.9
Foods.....	104.9	104.7	104.6	105.0	104.7	104.4	105.0	105.0	104.2
Hides and leather products.....	117.7	117.6	117.6	117.6	117.6	117.6	117.6	117.6	117.5
Textile products.....	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3
Fuel and lighting materials.....	83.9	83.9	83.7	83.7	83.7	83.7	83.6	83.6	83.6
Metals and metal products.....	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8
Building materials.....	115.6	115.6	115.0	115.0	114.7	114.6	114.7	114.7	114.6
Chemicals and allied products.....	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	100.4
Housefurnishing goods.....	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	105.9	105.9
Miscellaneous.....	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3
Raw materials.....	113.6	113.3	112.8	113.3	113.2	113.0	113.9	113.6	113.5
Semi-manufactured articles.....	93.6	93.6	93.5	93.5	93.5	93.5	93.5	93.5	93.5
Manufactured products.....	101.1	101.1	101.0	101.0	101.0	100.9	100.9	100.9	100.7
All commodities other than farm products.....	99.6	99.6	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.2
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	98.7	98.7	98.6	98.6	98.5	98.5	98.5	98.5	98.3

Labor Turnover

Labor Turnover in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, April 1944

FOR every 1,000 workers on factory pay rolls in April 1944, 68 either changed jobs or left manufacturing work, as against 73 in March.

All types of separations declined over the month, the largest decline occurring in the lay-off rate, which dropped from 9 per 1,000 in March to 6 per 1,000 in April. Lay-off rates above 10 per 1,000 were reported by only two of the major manufacturing groups. The lay-off rate of 15 per 1,000 in the chemicals group reflected further cut-backs in the production of small-arms ammunition and explosives. Curtailment in the production of aluminum and magnesium castings was primarily responsible for the lay-off rate of 10 per 1,000 in the nonferrous metals group.

Quits still account for the largest share of all separations. "Return to the home State or locality" and "return to farming" were the major reasons for quits during April. A large number of quits also occurred in plants where approaching cuts in production schedules had been announced. For every 1,000 workers employed in manufacturing, 49 quit their jobs, as compared with 50 in March.

The highest discharge rate, 10 per 1,000, was reported by the transportation equipment group.

The separation rate for metal mining was considerably above that for manufacturing. Contrary to the trend in manufacturing, the separation rate in this group increased between March and April from 60 to 70 workers per 1,000. The extremely high military and miscellaneous separation rate for the metal mining group may reflect the recall of soldiers who had been furloughed to work in the mines.

The total separation rate for women in manufacturing industries was 76 per 1,000 as compared with 62 for men. To offset this, however, the accession rate for women was considerably above the accession rate for men, being 70 as against 47.

TABLE 1.—Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries¹

Class of turnover and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Total separation:												
1944.....	6.69	6.52	7.33	6.77								
1943.....	7.11	7.04	7.09	7.54	6.57	7.07	7.56	8.18	8.16	7.02	6.37	6.55
1939.....	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	3.46
Quit:												
1944.....	4.60	4.56	5.00	4.89								
1943.....	4.45	4.65	5.36	5.41	4.81	5.20	5.61	6.30	6.29	5.19	4.46	4.38
1939.....	.85	.64	.82	.78	.68	.73	.70	.82	1.07	.93	.83	.69
Discharge:												
1944.....	.60	.64	.65	.59								
1943.....	.52	.50	.57	.53	.55	.61	.68	.67	.62	.64	.63	.60
1939.....	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	.12
Lay-off:²												
1944.....	.79	.76	.87	.58								
1943.....	.74	.64	.52	.64	.45	.50	.46	.53	.51	.60	.60	.99
1939.....	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	2.65
Military:												
1944.....	.53	.49	.73	.64								
1943.....	1.26	1.23	1.12	.87	.69	.69	.69	.67	.64	.61	.52	.50
Miscellaneous:⁴												
1944.....	.08	.07	.08	.07								
1943.....	.14	.12	.12	.09	.07	.07	.08	.08	.08	.07	.07	.08
Accession:												
1944.....	6.47	5.46	5.76	5.51								
1943.....	8.28	7.87	8.32	7.43	7.18	8.40	7.83	7.62	7.73	7.17	6.62	5.19
1939.....	4.09	3.06	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	2.84

¹ Month-to-month employment changes as indicated by labor turnover rates are not precisely comparable to those shown by the Bureau's employment and pay-roll reports, as the former are based on data for the entire month while the latter refer, for the most part, to a 1-week period ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor-turnover data, beginning in January 1943, refer to all employees, whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to wage earners. The labor-turnover sample is not so extensive as that of the employment and pay-roll survey—proportionately fewer small plants are included; printing and publishing, and certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered.

² Preliminary.

³ Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

⁴ Data for 1939 included with quits.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ April 1944

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession	
	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944	Apr. 1944 ²	Apr. 1944 ²	Apr. 1944 ²	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944
Manufacturing									
Ordnance.....	6.89	7.79	4.53	4.89	0.82	0.86	0.68	6.54	6.45
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment ³	5.04	5.77	3.27	3.23	.55	.51	.71
Ammunition, except small-arms ⁴	8.36	9.37	5.98	6.56	1.08	.61	.69
Tanks ⁵	7.07	7.90	3.41	3.54	.67	2.43	.50
Sighting and fire-control equipment ⁶	3.09	3.59	1.85	2.04	.36	.14	.74
Iron and steel and their products.....	4.85	5.49	3.43	3.55	.39	.33	.70	3.85	4.12
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	3.26	3.63	2.25	2.41	.18	.19	.64	2.63	2.74
Gray-iron castings.....	8.64	9.21	6.52	7.12	.83	.53	.76	7.87	7.42
Malleable-iron castings.....	5.79	5.99	4.79	4.80	.39	.03	.58	3.66	4.55
Steel castings.....	7.10	7.38	5.47	5.52	.65	.18	.80	5.37	6.06
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	5.54	7.69	3.24	3.91	.27	.90	1.13	4.79	4.55
Tin cans and other tinware.....	10.65	12.00	8.79	9.36	.90	.31	.68	11.68	14.14
Wire products.....	2.73	2.96	1.82	1.88	.27	.06	.58	3.14	3.05
Cutlery and edge tools.....	5.77	7.65	4.71	6.17	.35	.15	.56	8.05	7.03
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	6.00	8.06	4.00	6.13	.52	.28	.66	4.42	5.75

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ April 1944—Continued

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Dis-charge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession	
	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944	Apr. 1944 ²	Apr. 1944 ²	Apr. 1944 ²	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944
Manufacturing—Continued									
Iron and steel and their products—Con.									
Hardware.....	4.80	5.78	3.74	3.67	0.35	0.33	0.38	3.76	4.34
Plumbers' supplies.....	5.99	6.81	4.02	5.20	.85	.02	1.10	4.32	4.40
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment.....	8.28	9.23	6.34	4.54	.48	.90	.50	6.59	7.10
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	5.16	6.11	3.83	4.24	.58	.00	.66	5.07	3.94
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	8.34	8.53	6.79	6.21	.73	.33	.49	7.15	8.23
Fabricated structural-metal products.....	7.60	8.85	5.21	5.72	1.07	.26	1.06	6.95	8.19
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	5.31	5.53	3.95	3.68	.39	.39	.58	4.54	4.42
Forgings, iron and steel.....	5.00	5.65	3.70	3.89	.31	.05	.94	3.26	3.06
Firearms (50 caliber and under).....	6.23	9.03	3.13	3.03	.68	1.65	.77
Electrical machinery.....	5.23	5.25	3.75	3.76	.61	.37	.50	4.81	5.13
Electrical equipment for industrial use.....	4.42	4.20	2.85	2.73	.48	.58	.51	3.45	3.54
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs.....	6.61	6.46	4.97	4.72	.83	.36	.45
Communication equipment, except radios.....	3.98	4.76	2.96	3.79	.37	.08	.57
Machinery, except electrical.....	5.49	5.55	3.57	3.53	.57	.47	.88	4.28	4.50
Engines and turbines.....	5.23	5.59	3.27	3.31	.64	.85	.97
Agricultural machinery and tractors.....	6.88	6.53	4.75	4.85	.47	.69	.87	6.48	7.61
Machine tools.....	4.08	4.59	2.32	2.47	.38	.44	.94	2.40	2.35
Machine-tool accessories.....	5.65	5.69	3.19	3.04	.61	.82	1.03	3.35	3.71
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	3.96	5.34	2.73	3.02	.38	.06	.79	3.09	3.02
Textile machinery.....	4.34	4.85	3.51	3.32	.15	.15	.53	4.50	4.40
General industrial machinery, except pumps.....	5.92	5.70	3.93	3.76	.65	.56	.78	4.04	4.45
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	5.50	5.29	3.98	3.44	.61	.07	.84	3.69	4.42
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	7.22	7.67	4.71	4.84	1.03	.58	.90	5.52	5.82
Aircraft.....	6.25	7.02	4.32	4.57	.53	.41	.99	3.76	4.01
Aircraft parts.....	4.56	5.57	3.51	3.20	.63	.74	.08	4.66	4.86
Shipbuilding and repairs.....	8.82	9.27	5.66	5.93	1.64	.60	.92	7.26	7.68
Automobiles.....	6.45	7.78	4.13	4.49	.79	.69	.84	5.78	5.75
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers.....	6.15	8.52	3.56	4.17	.53	1.43	.63	5.19	3.96
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories.....	6.61	7.34	4.46	4.68	.94	.25	.96	6.13	6.80
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	7.78	8.04	5.31	4.91	.61	1.04	.82	5.17	5.38
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium.....	4.95	4.10	3.73	3.06	.28	.19	.75	3.77	2.91
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining.....	10.90	14.82	8.04	6.61	.70	.89	1.27	7.74	6.86
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys.....	4.33	6.07	3.17	4.22	.49	.15	.52	3.07	3.53
Aluminum and magnesium products.....	9.67	7.95	5.62	4.99	.65	1.88	.92	5.19	5.35
Lighting equipment.....	6.48	7.41	4.41	4.12	.56	.70	.81	5.85	6.77
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium.....	7.50	7.95	5.94	5.51	.65	.24	.67	6.08	7.66
Lumber and timber basic products.....	8.94	9.31	7.10	6.89	.33	.77	.74	7.37	7.27
Sawmills.....	8.31	8.57	6.74	6.68	.25	.49	.83	7.62	7.19
Planing and plywood mills.....	8.14	8.64	5.87	5.59	.58	1.16	.53	4.72	6.03
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	9.92	10.10	7.95	7.99	.74	.48	.75	8.64	8.40
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings.....	10.43	10.57	8.60	8.42	.79	.28	.76	8.71	8.67
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	5.98	6.18	4.06	3.99	.44	.58	.90	5.20	5.14
Glass and glass products.....	6.04	6.17	3.77	3.89	.71	.38	1.18	5.63	6.01
Cement.....	6.37	6.45	2.75	2.36	.22	2.78	.62	6.31	5.13
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	7.31	7.62	5.59	5.54	.34	.52	.86	5.25	5.89
Pottery and related products.....	6.49	6.08	5.51	4.91	.26	.11	.61	5.60	5.92

See footnotes at end of table.

Labor Turnover

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TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ April 1944—Continued

Total accession		Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944	Apr. 1944 ²	Mar. 1944
Manufacturing—Continued													
Textile-mill products													
.....	6.88	7.03	5.66	5.66	0.36	0.31	0.55	5.26	5.78
Cotton.....	7.89	8.10	6.63	6.71	.41	.26	.59	6.25	6.67
Silk and rayon goods.....	7.22	6.96	5.95	5.52	.44	.32	.51	5.42	6.23
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing.....	4.39	4.79	3.47	3.47	.21	.34	.37	3.07	3.50
Hosiery, full-fashioned.....	5.79	5.67	4.58	4.00	.13	.26	.82	3.82	4.13
Hosiery, seamless.....	6.89	6.68	5.63	5.75	.19	.61	.46	4.77	6.28
Knitted underwear.....	5.80	6.30	4.78	5.47	.19	.50	.27	3.73	3.92
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	5.39	5.73	3.77	3.87	.57	.52	.53	3.30	4.10
Apparel and other finished textile products													
.....	6.32	6.67	5.32	5.61	.22	.59	.19	5.15	6.19
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats.....	4.73	5.16	4.03	4.57	.17	.41	.12	4.29	5.25
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments.....	6.66	6.37	5.53	5.46	.25	.66	.22	5.21	5.57
Women's clothing, except corsets.....	6.62	7.59	5.18	5.13	.16	1.12	.16	4.17	6.30
Leather and leather products													
.....	6.20	6.20	5.17	4.97	.36	.22	.45	5.68	6.18
Leather.....	4.97	4.34	3.62	3.11	.25	.60	.50	3.88	4.30
Boots and shoes.....	6.43	6.51	5.45	5.27	.38	.15	.45	6.01	6.49
Food and kindred products													
.....	10.01	10.72	8.15	8.76	.49	.61	.76	8.54	9.04
Meat products.....	10.46	11.89	8.49	9.66	.53	.55	.89	8.49	8.95
Grain-mill products.....	9.09	10.10	7.11	7.11	.58	.53	.87	6.65	7.96
Tobacco manufactures													
.....	7.36	7.55	6.14	6.61	.24	.58	.40	5.39	5.52
Paper and allied products													
.....	6.95	7.34	5.57	5.69	.36	.38	.64	6.20	6.20
Paper and pulp.....	6.55	6.79	5.14	5.18	.33	.41	.67	5.69	5.70
Paper boxes.....	8.06	8.53	6.65	6.78	.48	.37	.56	7.78	6.82
Chemicals and allied products													
.....	6.30	10.07	3.61	3.89	.40	1.53	.76	4.62	4.34
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	4.57	5.52	3.42	4.09	.44	.22	.49	4.02	4.58
Rayon and allied products.....	4.40	3.79	3.05	2.79	.25	.48	.62	4.57	4.08
Industrial chemicals, except explosives.....	4.35	4.56	3.06	3.09	.43	.19	.67	4.18	3.96
Explosives.....	6.02	6.68	3.34	4.09	.27	1.87	.54
Small-arms ammunition.....	11.53	24.65	4.59	5.24	.41	5.90	1.23
Products of petroleum and coal													
.....	3.11	3.19	2.28	2.06	.22	.14	.47	3.74	3.69
Petroleum refining.....	2.97	2.99	2.18	1.91	.21	.14	.44	3.78	3.53
Rubber products													
.....	6.15	6.43	5.08	5.17	.35	.18	.54	4.94	5.61
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	4.73	5.06	3.85	4.00	.25	.04	.59	3.85	4.52
Rubber footwear and related products.....	6.31	7.23	5.65	6.54	.29	.00	.37	5.05	7.32
Miscellaneous rubber industries.....	7.60	7.69	6.28	6.19	.45	.35	.82	6.04	6.52
Miscellaneous industries													
.....	5.20	5.22	3.46	2.91	.50	.50	.74	3.65	3.41
Nonmanufacturing													
Metal mining													
.....	7.10	5.96	4.79	4.01	.36	.39	1.56	4.80	4.29
Iron ore.....	3.98	3.01	2.87	2.01	.15	.16	.80	4.32	2.86
Copper ore.....	7.49	6.82	5.46	4.77	.25	.29	1.49	3.95	4.32
Lead and zinc ore.....	9.17	7.48	5.96	4.91	.34	.15	2.72	4.33	4.47
Metal mining, not elsewhere classified, including aluminum ore.....	9.57	8.62	5.61	5.55	1.08	1.47	1.41	8.60	7.33
Coal mining													
.....	2.06	1.79	1.60	1.19	.04	.08	.34	1.23	1.53
Anthracite.....	3.76	3.74	2.84	2.72	.17	.16	.59	2.46	2.69
Bituminous.....
Public utilities													
.....	3.02	2.79	2.57	2.35	.14	.11	.20	2.75	2.83
Telephone.....	2.82	2.78	2.41	2.28	.14	.08	.19	3.36	3.34
Telegraph.....

¹ Since January 1943, manufacturing firms reporting labor turnover have been assigned industry codes on the basis of current products. Most plants in the employment and pay-roll sample, comprising those which were in operation in 1939, are still classified according to their major activity at that time, regardless of any subsequent change in major product.

² Preliminary.

³ Publication of accession rates is restricted in these specific war industries.

TABLE 3.—Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees)¹ for Men and Women in Selected Industries Engaged in War Production, April 1944²

Industry group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
All manufacturing.....	6.22	7.59	4.07	6.11	4.68	6.96
Ordnance.....	6.05	8.22	3.63	6.75	5.16	8.53
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment..	4.75	5.91	2.76	4.78	3.99	7.41
Ammunition, except small-arms.....	7.51	9.40	4.56	7.73	6.40	9.40
Tanks.....	6.71	7.48	4.49	6.65	6.50	11.47
Sighting and fire-control equipment.....	2.66	4.09	1.25	3.19	1.85	5.14
Iron and steel and their products.....	4.34	7.77	2.97	6.01	3.08	8.07
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	3.03	5.79	2.02	4.61	2.11	8.08
Gray-iron castings.....	8.17	11.38	5.23	7.54	7.20	10.09
Malleable-iron castings.....	5.87	5.12	4.84	4.38	3.27	6.77
Steel castings.....	7.02	8.00	5.48	5.39	4.75	12.03
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	5.29	8.19	3.32	2.44	4.21	11.09
Firearms, 60 caliber and under.....	5.39	8.60	2.78	3.75	1.80	4.77
Electrical machinery.....	3.87	6.77	2.39	5.29	3.53	6.30
Electrical equipment for industrial use.....	3.06	6.63	1.81	4.45	2.24	5.49
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs.....	5.04	7.70	2.91	6.43	5.82	7.43
Communication equipment, except radios.....	3.06	4.86	1.86	4.01	2.75	4.92
Machinery, except electrical.....	5.00	7.43	2.17	5.40	3.49	7.28
Engines and turbines.....	4.94	6.22	2.90	4.51	3.84	9.23
Machine tools.....	3.89	5.56	1.93	4.44	1.86	5.73
Machine-tool accessories.....	5.45	6.29	2.82	4.41	2.99	4.38
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	3.61	5.67	2.32	4.75	2.14	7.72
General industrial machinery, except pumps.....	5.17	8.34	3.25	6.00	3.45	8.77
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	5.56	5.25	3.83	4.67	3.09	6.46
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	6.94	8.06	4.25	6.11	5.65	6.96
Aircraft.....	5.73	7.06	3.33	5.88	3.07	4.83
Aircraft parts.....	4.86	7.33	2.94	4.93	3.82	6.77
Shipbuilding and repairs.....	8.48	11.05	5.32	7.98	6.60	11.79
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	7.63	8.34	5.01	6.41	4.71	6.85
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium.....	4.66	8.88	3.43	7.71	3.43	8.43
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining.....	11.04	9.67	8.15	7.03	7.40	10.92
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys.....	3.78	6.24	2.56	5.29	2.66	4.94
Aluminum and magnesium products.....	8.92	9.69	5.23	7.14	4.63	7.40
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium.....	7.10	8.47	5.39	7.27	5.57	7.31
Chemicals and allied products.....	6.05	6.94	3.00	5.61	3.89	4.31
Industrial chemicals, except explosives.....	4.11	5.31	2.70	4.51	3.73	6.26
Explosives.....	7.11	4.23	3.37	3.29	3.38	7.13
Small-arms ammunition.....	13.80	9.24	3.85	5.56	4.45	5.85

¹ These figures are presented to show comparative turnover rates and should not be used to estimate employment.

Preliminary.

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, May 1944

BUILDING construction started in urban areas of the United States during May was valued at \$109,000,000, exceeding the April total by 21 percent. Both Federal and non-Federal building construction increased in May—31 and 16 percent, respectively. The value of new residential construction started during the month rose 18 percent over the previous month, new nonresidential construction rose 28 percent, and additions, alterations, and repairs, 15 percent.

The volume of work started during the month was 4 percent greater than in May a year ago, with a decline in Federal construction of 6 percent, which was more than offset by an increase of 10 percent in non-Federal construction. Both new nonresidential building and additions, alterations, and repairs increased by more than half during this same period, whereas new residential building was almost two-fifths less, with sharp declines in both Federal and non-Federal building.

Comparison of May 1944 with April 1944 and May 1943

The volume of building construction in urban areas in April and May 1944 and May 1943 is summarized in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, May 1944

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	May 1944	Percent of change from—		May 1944 (in thou- sands)	Percent of change from—	
		April 1944	May 1943		April 1944	May 1943
All building construction.....	67,643	+26.6	+8.1	\$108,728	+21.0	+4.1
New residential.....	9,159	+11.6	-48.6	34,621	+17.5	-37.4
New nonresidential.....	8,189	+15.5	-1.6	46,986	+27.6	+50.4
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	50,295	+31.9	+38.0	27,121	+15.2	+51.5

The number of new dwelling units in urban areas for which building permits were issued or Federal contracts awarded during May 1944 and their valuation are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Type of Dwelling, May 1944*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation		
	May 1944	Percent of change from—		May 1944 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		April 1944	May 1943		April 1944	May 1943
All dwellings.....	11, 145	+16. 2	-46. 1	\$34, 080	+16. 9	-37. 9
Privately financed.....	9, 743	+14. 2	-21. 1	29, 790	+10. 6	-21. 6
1-family.....	6, 981	+9. 8	-16. 2	21, 801	+8. 2	-20. 2
2-family ¹	956	-4. 7	-41. 9	3, 151	-10. 1	-24. 0
Multifamily ²	1, 806	+54. 9	-23. 9	4, 838	+47. 1	-20. 2
Federally financed.....	1, 402	+31. 8	-83. 2	4, 290	+94. 0	-74. 6

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.*Comparison of First 5 Months of 1943 and 1944*

Permit valuations and contract values for all building construction as reported in the first 5 months of 1944 are compared with similar data for 1943 in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Valuation of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction, First 5 Months of 1943 and 1944*

Class of construction	Valuation (in thousands of dollars)					
	Total construction			Federal		
	First 5 months of—		Percent of change	First 5 months of—		Percent of change
	1944	1943		1944	1943	
All construction.....	453, 610	542, 304	-16. 4	149, 627	313, 149	-52. 2
New residential.....	162, 371	257, 740	-37. 0	24, 831	126, 825	-80. 4
New nonresidential.....	176, 635	208, 680	-15. 4	119, 219	177, 629	-32. 9
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	114, 604	75, 884	+51. 0	5, 577	8, 695	-35. 9

The number and valuation of new dwelling units for which permits were issued and Federal contracts awarded during the first 5 months of 1944 are compared with similar data for 1943 in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, First 5 Months of 1943 and 1944*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands of dollars)		
	First 5 months of—		Percent of change	First 5 months of—		Percent of change
	1944	1943		1944	1943	
All dwellings.....	53, 435	99, 269	-46. 2	160, 796	250, 005	-35. 7
Privately financed.....	43, 375	43, 496	-. 3	136, 929	130, 510	+4. 9
1-family.....	32, 680	29, 712	+10. 0	103, 668	94, 209	+10. 0
2-family ¹	4, 510	5, 567	-19. 0	15, 271	14, 962	+1. 9
Multifamily ²	6, 185	8, 219	-24. 7	17, 990	21, 309	-15. 6
Federally financed.....	10, 060	55, 771	-82. 0	23, 867	119, 495	-80. 0

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction From Public Funds, May 1944

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during April and May 1944 and May 1943 on all construction projects and shipbuilding financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics is shown in table 5. This table includes both inside and outside urban areas of the United States.

TABLE 5.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction
• Projects Financed From Federal Funds, May 1944

Source of Federal funds	Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started (in thousands)		
	May 1944 ¹	April 1944 ¹	May 1943 ²
All Federal funds.....	\$230,727	\$566,505	\$223,081
War public works.....	3,858	2,683	4,173
Regular Federal appropriations.....	219,889	560,440	200,465
Federal Public Housing Authority.....	6,980	3,382	18,443

¹ Preliminary, subject to revision.

² Revised.

Coverage and Method

Figures on building construction in this report cover the entire urban area of the United States, which, by Census definition, includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more, and by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Valuation figures, the basis for statements concerning volume, are derived from the estimates of construction cost made by prospective private builders when applying for permits to build, and the value of contracts awarded by Federal and State governments. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of cities in urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Reports of building permits, which were received in May 1944 for cities containing between 80 and 85 percent of the urban population of the country, provide the basis for estimating the total number of buildings and dwelling units and the valuation of private urban building construction. Similar data for Federally financed urban building construction are compiled directly from notifications of construction contracts awarded, as furnished by Federal agencies.

The contracts awarded for Federally financed building construction in urban areas were valued at \$38,031,000 in May 1944, \$23,678,000 in April 1944, and \$40,445,000 in May 1943.

Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

Summary of Reports for May 1944

COMPLETION of many war contracts, curtailments in others, and decreases in consumer-goods production are reflected in the further decline in manufacturing wage-earner employment to 13,007,000 in May 1944. The number of factory workers in that month was 165,000 less than in April 1944 and a million below the November 1943 peak.

The large decline in manufacturing employment, plus a decline of 124,000 in trade, resulted in a drop of almost 300,000 in total non-agricultural employment during the month, to a level of 38,200,000. The number of employees in nonagricultural establishments in May 1944 was at approximately the same level as in May 1942.

Industrial and Business Employment

Wage-earner employment in each of the durable-goods groups and in all but one of the nondurable-goods groups in May 1944 was below the level in November 1943. During the 6-month period, employment in the transportation-equipment group declined by almost 200,000, in the chemicals group by almost 150,000, and in the iron and steel, machinery, and automobile groups by almost 100,000 each. Such civilian-goods groups as textiles and apparel reduced employment by 80,000 and 50,000, respectively.

In the year ending in May 1944 the number of wage earners in the durable-goods group dropped by 300,000 and in the nondurable group by 400,000. With the exception of the electrical-machinery and automobile groups, all of the major durable groups employed fewer wage earners than in May 1943. The increase of 37,000 in the electrical-machinery group reflected the expansion in the production of radios, radar, and communication equipment. Among the nondurable groups, only the food, petroleum, and rubber groups showed an increase in number of wage earners as compared with May 1943.

Laundries and dyeing and cleaning establishments experienced the usual seasonal employment increase between April and May; each of these industries had a net increase of 2,000 wage earners. Employment in retail trade declined further, and was at a lower level than in any May since the war began.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners and Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group¹

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (thousands)				Wage-earner indexes (1939=100)	
	May 1944 ²	April 1944	March 1944	May 1943	May 1944 ²	April 1944
All manufacturing	13,007	13,172	13,408	13,700	158.8	160.8
Durable goods.....	7,861	7,978	8,122	8,150	217.7	230.9
Nondurable goods.....	5,146	5,194	5,286	5,541	112.3	113.4
Iron and steel and their products	1,654	1,664	1,691	1,718	166.8	167.8
Electrical machinery.....	732	739	750	695	282.6	285.2
Machinery, except electrical.....	1,178	1,195	1,219	1,343	223.0	226.1
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	2,148	2,175	2,213	2,241	1353.1	1370.1
Automobiles.....	675	710	725	660	167.8	176.6
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	388	393	404	410	169.2	171.5
Lumber and timber basic products.....	419	426	432	479	99.6	101.4
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	336	341	349	356	102.5	103.9
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	331	335	339	357	112.8	114.3
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,111	1,129	1,152	1,239	97.1	98.7
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	772	784	808	865	97.7	99.3
Leather and leather products.....	307	310	313	337	88.5	89.4
Food.....	631	641	641	614	111.3	110.1
Tobacco manufactures.....	83	84	84	90	88.4	89.5
Paper and allied products.....	303	306	310	312	114.0	115.4
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	329	332	336	329	100.4	101.3
Chemicals and allied products.....	500	602	626	739	204.6	208.8
Products of petroleum and coal.....	130	128	127	124	122.3	121.1
Rubber products.....	191	195	200	186	158.2	161.4
Miscellaneous industries.....	379	383	389	406	154.9	156.4

¹ The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.

² Preliminary.

Public Employment

Employment in the executive branch of the Federal Government reached a total of 3,300,000 in May 1944, with increases aggregating 24,000. The increases occurred mainly in the War, Navy, Treasury, and Post Office Departments. Employment in the other agencies remained practically level during the month. With the exception of last December, when the total was swelled by approximately 200,000 seasonal postal workers, the May level represented the highest point in Federal employment ever reached. The number of employees within continental United States, however, reached a peak last July, declined 165,000 by January of this year and then rose 54,000 from January to May, thus leaving a net decline of 111,000 from the July peak.

Employment on the Federal shipbuilding program (including repair) declined 19,000 over the past month, to a total of 1,611,000 in May 1944. This represented a decline of 113,000 from the industry peak in November 1943 and a net decline of 30,000 from May 1943. Employment in the navy yards decreased only 1,600 since the peak in March 1944 and was 16,000 higher than in May a year ago.

A slight seasonal increase was evident in employment on several of the types of construction projects financed from Federal funds, namely, reclamation; river, harbor, and flood control; streets and highways; and residential buildings. Completions on other types—airports, nonresidential buildings, and water and sewer systems—however, were accompanied by employment declines which brought

the May 1944 construction employment total 2,500 under that for April. Completions on all types of construction projects during the past year accounted for the decline of 534,000 workers.

The construction of war production facilities financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation has also been falling off over the past year, dropping 6,100 in employment during May 1944 and 159,000 during the year.

Employment on the construction and maintenance of roads financed from State and local funds showed a seasonal increase of 1,500 in May 1944. New construction declined during the war period and in the past year employment on new construction decreased 14,000.

For the regular Federal services, data for the legislative and judicial services are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics and data for executive-service employees are reported through the Civil Service Commission. The Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls for the various construction and shipbuilding and repair projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, directly from the shipyards and construction contractors.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data is shown in table 2 for the regular Federal services and in table 3 for construction and shipbuilding and repair projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds. It should be noted that data for employees located outside continental United States are included in the figures for the regular Federal services but are excluded from those for construction and shipbuilding and repair projects. Federal workers who receive either \$1 a year or month or no compensation whatever for their services are excluded.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services, May 1944*

[Subject to revision]

Service	Employment			Pay rolls		
	May 1944	April 1944	May 1943	May 1944	April 1944	May 1943
Executive ¹	3,290,604	3,275,919	3,182,814	\$638,585,000	\$633,912,000	\$586,818,000
War agencies ²	2,476,718	2,456,541	2,372,103	472,245,000	468,268,000	425,300,000
Continental United States.....	2,045,605	2,035,310	2,122,028	(³)	(³)	(³)
Outside continental United States ⁴	431,023	421,231	250,075	(³)	(³)	(³)
Other agencies.....	822,886	819,378	810,711	166,340,000	165,644,000	161,518,000
Continental United States.....	807,717	803,996	796,103	(³)	(³)	(³)
Outside continental United States ⁴	15,169	15,382	14,608	(³)	(³)	(³)
Judicial.....	2,676	2,675	2,722	761,004	757,766	763,179
Legislative.....	6,123	6,147	6,116	1,500,019	1,503,007	1,416,466

¹ Includes employees in United States navy yards and on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects. Data for May 1943 are not strictly comparable with the series starting July 1943 because of the inclusion of employees on terminal leave in the earlier figure. Pay rolls for April and May 1944 are estimated.

² Covers War and Navy Departments, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, Office for Emergency Management, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Selective Service System, and the Petroleum Administration for War.

³ Breakdown not available.

⁴ Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.

TABLE 3.—Employment and Pay Rolls on Federally Financed Construction and Shipbuilding and Repair Projects¹ and on Locally Financed State Road Projects

Program and type of project	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands)		
	May 1944 ²	April 1944	May 1943	May 1944 ²	April 1944	May 1943
Federal projects:						
Shipbuilding and repair	1,610.7	1,629.9	1,640.5	\$460,681	\$442,892	\$409,181
United States navy yards ³	330.2	331.0	313.9	90,510	90,717	83,930
Private shipyards	1,280.5	1,298.9	1,326.6	370,171	352,175	325,251
Construction:						
Financed from Federal appropriations ⁴	195.7	198.2	729.5	35,404	35,805	133,625
Airports	21.1	24.1	104.4	3,264	3,725	19,784
Buildings:						
Residential	82.0	80.8	404.8	14,770	14,511	77,334
Nonresidential	29.6	30.2	86.0	5,994	6,125	12,857
Electrification5	.5	1.0	121	114	152
Reclamation	14.5	14.4	26.3	3,063	3,057	5,123
River, harbor, and flood control	19.5	17.4	31.1	3,746	3,343	5,444
Streets and highways	15.7	13.5	30.0	2,311	1,983	4,945
Water and sewer systems	6.1	6.5	15.9	927	994	2,408
Miscellaneous	6.7	10.8	30.0	1,208	1,933	5,578
Financed from RFC funds	45.7	51.8	205.1	11,469	12,981	44,747
State projects: ⁵						
New road construction	9.0	8.5	23.1	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Road maintenance	85.0	84.0	90.4	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)

¹Data are for continental United States, exclusive of Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.²Preliminary.³Excludes Washington, D. C. Navy Yard. Data are also included in the Federal executive service.⁴Includes the following force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government: May 1944, 28,084; April 1944, 31,280; May 1943, 56,105. These employees are also included under the Federal executive service; all other workers were employed by contractors or subcontractors.⁵Data for May 1944 partially estimated.⁶Data not available.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, April 1944

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

REVISED estimates of employment in nonagricultural establishments are shown in table 1. Revisions have been made in the estimates for the manufacturing, mining, and transportation divisions from January 1941 to date, and in the trade, construction, government, and service divisions from January 1939 to date. For the most part the changes were necessary to bring the series into closer agreement with trends indicated by unemployment compensation data. Comparable figures for the months from January 1939 to March 1944 appear on page 224 of this issue.

The estimates are based on reports of employers to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, on unemployment-compensation data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and on information supplied by other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission, Civil Service Commission, Bureau of the Census, and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance. The estimates include all wage and salaried workers in

nonagricultural establishments but exclude military personnel, proprietors, self-employed persons, and domestic servants.

Estimates of employees in nonagricultural establishments, by States, are published each month in a detailed report on employment and pay rolls.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division*¹

Industry division	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	April 1944	March 1944	February 1944	April 1943
Total estimated employment ²	38,493	38,681	38,840	39,736
Manufacturing.....	16,223	16,509	16,735	16,774
Mining.....	844	852	838	868
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction.....	661	678	715	1,402
Transportation and public utilities.....	3,741	3,723	3,704	3,870
Trade.....	6,969	6,919	6,837	7,061
Finance, service, and miscellaneous.....	4,150	4,129	4,131	4,068
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction.....	5,905	5,871	5,830	5,940

¹ The Bureau's estimates of nonagricultural employment have been revised back to January 1939.

² Estimates include all full- and part-time wage and salary workers in nonagricultural establishments who are employed during the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Proprietors, self-employed persons, domestic servants, and personnel of the armed forces are excluded.

Industrial and Business Employment

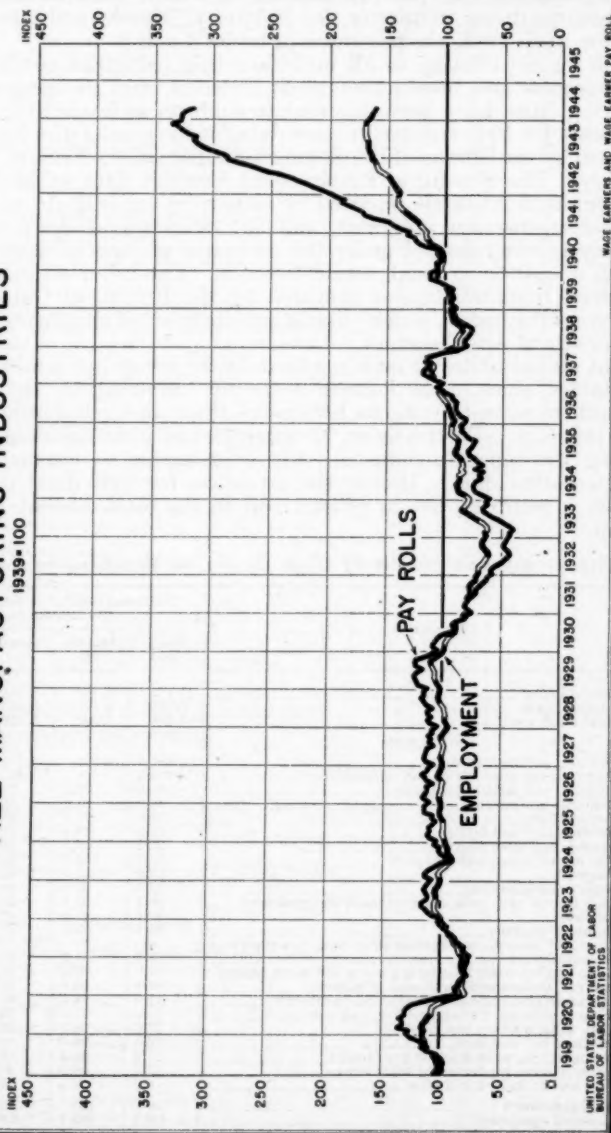
Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 154 manufacturing industries and for 15 nonmanufacturing industries, including water transportation and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The employment, pay roll, hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning, cover wage earners only; but the figures for public utilities, brokerage, insurance, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives, while for trade they relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for public utilities and 90 percent for mining.

The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative establishments in the 154 manufacturing industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 65 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and about 80 percent of the wage earners in the 154 industries covered.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

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INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries, for February, March, and April 1944, and for April 1943, are presented in tables 3 and 5.

The figures relating to all manufacturing industries combined, to the durable- and nondurable-goods divisions, and to the major industry groups, have been adjusted to conform to levels indicated by final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 released by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. The Bureau of Employment Security data referred to are (a) employment totals reported by employers under State unemployment-compensation programs, and (b) estimates of the number of employees not reported under the programs of some of these States, which do not cover small establishments. The latter estimates were obtained from tabulations prepared by the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, which obtains reports from all employers, regardless of size of establishment.

Not all industries in each major industry group are represented in the tables, since minor industries are not canvassed by the Bureau, and others cannot be shown because of their close relationship to the war program. Furthermore, no attempt has been made to allocate among the separate industries the adjustments to unemployment-compensation data. Hence, the estimates for individual industries within a group do not in general add to the total estimate for that group.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries¹

Industry ²	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	April 1944	March 1944	February 1944	April 1943
All manufacturing.....	13,172	13,408	13,594	13,735
Durable goods.....	7,978	8,122	8,240	8,145
Nondurable goods.....	5,194	5,286	5,354	5,590
<i>Durable goods</i>				
Iron and steel and their products.....	1,664	1,691	1,714	1,739
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	485.5	491.1	495.5	522.8
Gray-iron and semisteel castings.....	74.6	76.2	77.1	83.2
Malleable-iron castings.....	25.0	25.4	25.8	27.2
Steel castings.....	76.9	78.6	80.0	85.5
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	15.0	15.4	15.5	16.0
Tin cans and other tinware.....	36.2	35.7	35.1	36.1
Wire drawn from purchased rods.....	33.7	34.2	34.7	37.0
Wirework.....	33.9	33.6	33.9	32.3
Outlets and edge tools.....	22.6	22.7	23.0	21.7
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	28.1	25.4	28.6	28.3
Hardware.....	46.6	47.2	47.8	44.5
Plumbers' supplies.....	23.1	23.6	23.7	22.0
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	61.2	61.7	62.6	62.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	56.9	57.5	58.9	58.4
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	89.1	90.5	90.3	87.5
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.....	73.9	73.9	74.9	76.7
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.....	13.4	13.3	13.7	12.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	27.6	28.1	28.4	26.6
Forgings, iron and steel.....	38.4	39.5	40.4	46.5
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted.....	26.3	26.5	26.9	25.3
Screw-machine products and wood screws.....	47.1	48.0	48.3	46.7
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	7.0	7.3	7.7	4.9
Electrical machinery.....	739	750	752	683
Electrical equipment ³	459.1	463.8	466.3	457.3
Machinery, except electrical.....	1,195	1,219	1,237	1,257
Machinery and machine-shop products.....	475.6	484.0	493.1	467.3
Tractors.....	59.9	59.9	59.9	46.3
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.....	45.6	46.1	45.0	33.1
Machine tools.....	80.4	83.2	85.8	118.9

See footnotes at end of table.

Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

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TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries—Con-

Industry ¹	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	April 1944	March 1944	February 1944	April 1943
Durable goods—Continued				
Machine-tool accessories ²	71.0	73.8	75.8	91.8
Textile machinery.....	27.8	28.1	28.4	28.0
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	82.2	83.7	84.2	75.6
Typewriters.....	11.6	12.0	12.4	12.3
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines.....	33.4	34.0	34.9	34.0
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic.....	13.8	14.2	14.7	11.6
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial.....	9.3	9.4	9.5	10.6
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.....	54.2	54.4	54.9	52.8
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	2,175	2,213	2,257	2,221
Locomotives ³	36.3	35.4	35.8	33.0
Cars, electric and steam-railroad ⁴	58.9	59.5	60.3	62.1
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts.....	9.1	9.5	10.1	10.0
Automobiles.....	710	725	739	653
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	393	404	413	411
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals.....	52.4	54.2	57.3	54.0
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum ⁵	71.8	72.8	74.0	76.3
Clocks and watches.....	24.8	25.2	25.2	24.9
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings.....	14.3	14.4	14.5	16.6
Silverware and plated ware.....	10.5	10.7	11.1	11.8
Lighting equipment.....	25.0	25.3	26.3	23.1
Aluminum manufactures ⁶	78.4	82.1	83.8	72.9
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified.....	31.6	32.6	31.9	30.2
Lumber and timber basic products.....	426	432	434	480
Sawmills and logging camps.....	231.5	234.0	235.3	262.3
Planing and plywood mills.....	74.3	76.1	76.5	81.8
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	341	349	352	300
Mattresses and bedspreads.....	16.6	16.6	17.0	17.9
Furniture.....	158.8	164.2	165.8	168.2
Wooden boxes, other than cigar.....	28.1	28.2	27.9	30.2
Caskets and other morticians' goods.....	12.2	12.5	12.5	12.2
Wood preserving.....	9.8	9.9	9.9	10.6
Wood, turned and shaped.....	21.7	21.6	21.9	22.1
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	335	339	342	359
Glass and glassware.....	92.6	92.6	92.1	86.9
Glass products made from purchased glass.....	10.4	10.7	10.7	11.4
Cement.....	17.2	17.1	17.7	24.8
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	43.2	44.1	45.2	62.2
Pottery and related products.....	41.6	42.1	41.9	44.4
Gypsum.....	4.3	4.5	4.6	4.4
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool.....	9.3	9.7	9.9	11.5
Lime.....	8.4	8.5	8.7	9.6
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	12.4	12.3	12.0	12.3
Abrasives.....	21.7	22.1	22.6	22.8
Asbestos products.....	21.2	21.7	22.1	21.8
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	1,129	1,152	1,164	1,254
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.....	445.3	455.3	460.6	497.0
Cotton smallwares.....	13.8	14.3	14.6	17.2
Silk and rayon goods.....	91.4	92.9	93.8	96.8
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and fin- ishing.....	155.0	157.8	158.9	171.0
Hosiery.....	107.2	109.4	110.8	119.6
Knitted cloth.....	11.0	11.3	11.5	11.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.....	30.4	30.7	30.8	32.6
Knitted underwear.....	36.7	37.7	38.2	43.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted, carpets and rugs, wool.....	63.0	63.9	64.5	69.5
Hats, fur-felt.....	20.4	20.7	20.9	23.8
Fur goods, except felts.....	9.5	9.8	9.9	10.3
Fur goods, except felts.....	3.3	3.4	3.5	4.0
Cordage and twine.....	16.1	16.6	16.7	17.1
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	784	808	810	889
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	214.2	216.9	217.6	239.9
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	54.1	54.8	54.8	62.5
Underwear and neckwear, men's.....	12.5	12.7	12.7	12.9
Work shirts.....	15.5	16.7	17.0	19.0
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	221.4	230.7	228.7	248.7
Corsets and allied garments.....	15.3	15.6	15.9	16.9
Millinery.....	19.4	20.8	20.9	22.0
Handkerchiefs.....	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.9
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads.....	12.8	13.8	14.2	18.6
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.....	9.5	10.1	12.0	15.5
Textile bags.....	14.9	15.5	15.8	15.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries¹—Con.

Industry ²	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	April 1944	March 1944	February 1944	April 1943
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>				
Leather and leather products.....	310	313	312	340
Leather.....	40.7	41.1	41.2	47.4
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	16.4	16.7	16.3	18.1
Boots and shoes.....	175.2	176.2	176.0	192.9
Leather gloves and mittens.....	13.2	13.4	13.6	15.1
Trunks and suitcases.....	12.2	12.5	11.9	14.3
Food.....	941	941	952	910
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	156.2	161.5	168.2	158.8
Butter.....	22.6	21.4	20.5	21.9
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	13.6	12.9	12.5	12.9
Ice cream.....	14.6	13.8	13.3	14.4
Flour.....	28.0	29.0	29.6	28.0
Feeds, prepared.....	19.9	20.8	21.6	21.9
Cereal preparations.....	9.4	9.5	9.6	8.4
Baking.....	255.0	257.3	257.8	247.0
Sugar refining, cane.....	14.0	14.2	14.5	13.2
Sugar, beet.....	4.2	3.6	3.8	4.1
Confectionery.....	57.8	59.0	59.1	54.9
Beverages, nonalcoholic.....	26.9	26.6	26.1	25.4
Malt liquors.....	48.3	47.8	47.1	43.6
Canning and preserving.....	98.6	90.1	93.9	90.9
Tobacco manufactures.....	84	84	87	93
Cigarettes.....	33.6	32.4	35.2	33.9
Cigars.....	37.1	38.0	38.4	43.2
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	7.5	7.8	8.2	8.2
Paper and allied products.....	306	310	312	312
Paper and pulp.....	145.9	147.6	148.4	148.0
Paper goods, other ³	47.4	47.9	47.7	47.4
Envelopes.....	9.8	10.0	10.2	10.4
Paper bags.....	13.6	13.6	13.7	12.2
Paper boxes.....	80.3	82.0	83.1	82.8
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	332	336	338	330
Newspapers and periodicals.....	110.3	110.3	109.9	113.7
Printing, book and job.....	132.6	134.9	137.0	127.6
Lithographing.....	25.0	25.0	24.8	25.0
Bookbinding.....	28.9	30.2	30.3	29.0
Chemicals and allied products.....	602	626	658	744
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	29.8	29.8	29.9	28.9
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	51.9	52.0	51.1	43.8
Perfumes and cosmetics.....	11.0	11.1	11.4	11.1
Soap.....	13.6	13.6	13.6	13.4
Rayon and allied products.....	52.0	52.3	52.2	51.0
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	120.2	120.0	121.4	113.0
Compressed and liquefied gases.....	6.0	6.0	6.2	6.4
Cottonseed oil.....	15.4	17.2	19.0	16.4
Fertilizers.....	26.2	27.8	26.5	26.7
Products of petroleum and coal.....	128	127	127	125
Petroleum refining.....	85.9	84.6	84.0	79.0
Coke and byproducts.....	22.9	23.0	23.2	25.1
Paving materials.....	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3
Roofing materials.....	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.9
Rubber products.....	195	200	202	186
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	91.6	93.6	94.1	83.0
Rubber boots and shoes.....	20.1	21.3	21.4	21.7
Rubber goods, other.....	73.9	75.7	76.7	72.1
Miscellaneous industries.....	383	389	392	403
Photographic apparatus.....	29.2	29.3	29.7	27.9
Pianos, organs, and parts.....	8.5	9.1	9.7	9.5
Games, toys, and dolls.....	15.7	15.8	16.0	15.3
Buttons.....	10.1	10.2	10.5	11.1
Fire extinguishers ⁴	6.5	6.7	6.9	7.9

¹ Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, and does not publish wage earners in war industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with totals shown for the major industry groups.

² Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized U. S. Government agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines; ammunition; communication equipment; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; firearms; fireworks; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment; radios and phonographs; and shipbuilding and boatbuilding.

³ Comparable data for earlier months available upon request.

⁴ Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:

Paper goods, other.—February 1943 to July 1943, wage earners to 48.2, 48.1, 47.4, 47.5, 48.2, and 47.4.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹

[1939 average=100]

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1943	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1943
All manufacturing.....	160.8	163.7	165.9	167.7	318.2	324.4	327.6	309.7
Durable goods.....	220.9	224.9	228.2	225.6	448.1	454.8	459.9	430.4
Nondurable goods.....	113.4	115.4	116.9	122.0	191.3	196.9	198.2	191.7
<i>Durable goods</i>								
Iron and steel and their products.....	167.8	170.6	172.9	174.4	308.0	314.1	318.4	301.7
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	125.0	126.4	127.6	134.6	221.2	222.2	225.2	217.4
Gray-iron and semisteel castings.....	127.7	130.4	132.0	142.3	246.7	254.8	259.1	263.1
Malleable-iron castings.....	138.4	140.9	143.3	151.0	271.5	286.1	292.5	278.0
Steel castings.....	258.7	261.4	266.0	284.3	463.1	478.1	487.4	499.9
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	91.0	93.1	93.6	108.7	173.6	173.9	170.2	185.0
Tin cans and other tinware.....	114.0	112.3	110.6	94.8	188.7	185.7	185.5	148.8
Wire drawn from purchased rods.....	153.6	155.6	158.0	168.3	249.1	256.1	260.0	258.5
Wirework.....	111.6	110.5	111.5	106.1	219.6	218.5	222.4	198.7
Cutlery and edge tools.....	146.3	147.5	149.2	141.0	304.3	299.2	304.8	277.9
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	183.3	185.4	186.9	184.3	349.4	352.8	355.9	339.5
Hardware.....	130.8	132.4	134.0	125.0	266.0	270.8	266.2	238.7
Plumbers' supplies.....	93.9	95.9	96.3	93.2	169.3	174.2	172.1	156.6
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	132.8	133.7	135.6	113.9	247.4	253.6	252.9	188.7
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	187.9	189.8	194.3	195.9	351.8	357.0	366.2	359.5
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	160.4	162.9	162.6	157.5	312.7	325.6	328.9	292.5
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.....	208.0	208.0	210.9	197.6	408.1	417.1	414.6	355.3
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.....	168.5	172.8	177.3	155.7	323.8	318.6	325.1	263.9
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	193.2	196.6	198.4	200.0	372.4	389.6	393.3	365.3
Forgings, iron and steel.....	249.5	257.1	262.7	263.7	487.4	514.7	527.6	504.8
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted.....	314.5	317.0	320.9	302.1	602.0	615.0	606.4	602.1
Screw-machine products and wood screws.....	278.2	283.4	285.3	293.6	537.6	550.0	561.7	544.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	114.7	119.9	126.2	114.4	223.5	240.1	241.2	214.7
Electrical machinery.....	285.2	289.4	290.4	268.4	502.0	513.2	512.7	454.7
Electrical equipment.....	254.0	256.6	257.9	253.0	466.4	465.9	465.7	436.5
Machinery, except electrical.....	226.1	230.7	234.1	234.1	424.3	432.8	438.0	422.3
Machinery and machine-shop products.....	235.1	239.2	243.7	240.9	429.2	441.1	447.4	429.3
Tractors.....	191.4	191.5	191.4	157.2	297.9	300.5	299.8	242.5
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.....	164.0	165.7	161.7	126.2	333.4	330.8	320.9	238.0
Machine tools.....	219.4	227.1	234.2	324.3	383.6	400.5	405.0	555.2
Machine-tool accessories.....	282.1	293.2	301.1	364.7	481.4	503.1	520.2	603.9
Textile machinery.....	127.0	128.5	129.7	127.7	228.6	233.5	236.5	228.9
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	339.1	345.2	347.4	311.8	769.2	782.3	741.5	632.8
Typewriters.....	70.7	74.2	76.5	73.6	141.7	150.2	154.3	145.3
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines.....	169.9	172.6	177.4	172.8	335.0	343.1	351.2	327.7
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic.....	185.2	190.4	196.2	156.0	323.6	331.7	345.5	263.9
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial.....	118.4	130.4	121.0	135.1	255.2	261.5	260.6	274.0
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.....	154.0	154.8	156.3	150.2	278.8	278.9	282.7	243.8
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	1370.1	1394.2	1422.2	1399.3	2798.0	2819.1	2854.5	2692.9
Locomotives.....	561.2	546.6	552.7	509.9	1280.1	1280.4	1253.9	997.8
Cars, electric and steam-railroad.....	240.1	242.5	246.0	253.3	480.1	492.5	488.7	468.5
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts.....	130.1	135.9	144.6	144.0	226.7	229.7	249.4	252.8
Automobiles.....	176.6	180.1	183.6	162.3	331.4	335.4	341.0	286.7
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	171.5	176.2	180.0	179.2	318.3	328.4	335.7	318.5
Smelting and refining, primary, of non-ferrous metals.....	189.5	196.1	207.3	195.3	352.2	355.6	371.0	329.0
Alloying and rolling and drawing of non-ferrous metals, except aluminum.....	184.9	187.6	190.6	196.7	340.4	351.6	355.2	352.9
Clocks and watches.....	122.4	124.3	124.2	122.6	249.6	253.4	252.5	235.7
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings.....	99.0	99.8	100.3	114.8	161.3	161.6	160.2	174.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued
[1939 average = 100]

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1943	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1943
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>								
Nonferrous metals and their products—Con.								
Silverware and plated ware.....	86.7	88.5	91.2	97.1	154.4	158.1	161.1	166.4
Lighting equipment.....	122.0	123.6	128.4	112.6	217.6	223.3	229.3	190.2
Aluminum manufactures.....	333.0	348.5	355.9	309.5	584.5	614.9	639.0	540.3
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified.....	168.8	173.7	169.9	161.3	317.4	333.0	328.6	270.9
Lumber and timber basic products.....	101.4	102.8	103.3	114.1	184.5	182.9	182.6	186.2
Sawmills and logging camps.....	80.4	81.2	81.7	91.1	149.1	146.7	146.1	131.4
Planing and plywood mills.....	102.2	104.7	105.3	112.6	171.3	173.5	172.8	180.9
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	103.9	106.3	107.3	109.8	181.7	188.2	187.9	177.9
Mattresses and bedsprings.....	90.4	90.2	92.6	97.7	144.7	148.8	145.8	147.0
Furniture.....	99.8	103.1	104.1	105.6	174.7	183.4	184.1	171.5
Wooden boxes, other than cigar.....	110.7	111.4	110.1	119.1	209.7	209.6	203.9	187.2
Caskets and other morticians' goods.....	98.4	100.2	100.1	98.4	162.3	166.6	166.0	160.6
Wood preserving.....	87.2	88.1	88.2	94.0	172.5	172.9	169.6	178.4
Wood, turned and shaped.....	98.5	98.1	99.7	100.7	171.2	169.2	170.7	182.0
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	114.3	115.5	116.6	122.3	187.3	189.4	188.9	184.1
Glass and glassware.....	132.6	132.6	131.9	124.4	208.7	211.0	208.6	190.0
Glass products made from purchased glass.....	103.6	106.6	107.3	114.3	165.8	170.6	171.9	160.0
Cement.....	72.4	71.7	74.1	104.0	108.3	103.8	106.2	141.4
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	76.0	77.7	79.7	91.9	117.3	121.2	123.6	137.6
Pottery and related products.....	125.7	127.2	126.7	134.1	193.2	192.9	187.8	192.6
Gypsum.....	87.1	92.0	93.2	89.3	148.9	153.9	157.1	167.2
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool.....	114.9	119.4	121.5	141.5	207.7	216.7	218.8	226.0
Lime.....	89.3	89.5	91.9	101.8	171.9	166.4	169.3	178.2
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	66.7	66.6	64.8	66.3	98.4	95.5	90.1	81.1
Abrasives.....	280.7	286.1	292.8	294.2	461.2	467.5	478.4	461.4
Asbestos products.....	133.3	136.4	138.9	137.4	256.7	268.7	267.1	261.1
<i>Nondurable goods</i>								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	98.7	100.7	101.8	109.6	170.0	173.9	174.3	181.1
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.....	112.5	115.0	116.3	125.5	201.3	202.2	202.2	207.1
Cotton smallwares.....	103.9	107.6	109.3	128.8	177.6	188.6	187.9	220.6
Silk and rayon goods.....	76.3	77.5	78.3	80.8	134.7	138.2	138.8	135.0
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	103.9	105.8	106.5	114.6	192.5	199.6	199.4	205.4
Hosiery.....	67.4	68.8	69.7	75.2	102.9	108.8	109.7	108.1
Knitted cloth.....	100.5	103.4	105.2	106.9	167.6	173.6	177.2	180.4
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.....	107.9	109.2	109.4	115.9	186.2	188.9	194.4	180.1
Knitted underwear.....	95.1	97.8	99.1	112.1	168.6	173.7	175.0	180.9
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	94.2	95.6	96.5	104.0	151.6	154.9	153.9	180.7
Carpets and rugs, wool.....	79.6	80.9	81.5	93.2	131.2	134.8	137.0	167.1
Hats, fur-felt.....	65.6	67.4	67.9	70.6	118.5	124.2	123.4	120.9
Fur goods, except felts.....	93.0	95.4	97.1	111.8	169.6	180.2	180.9	181.2
Cordage and twine.....	133.0	136.9	137.7	141.3	240.2	241.1	246.0	276.4
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	99.3	102.3	102.7	112.6	161.3	178.5	175.4	174.0
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	97.9	99.2	99.5	109.7	158.2	167.3	163.2	180.7
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	76.8	77.8	77.8	88.7	130.3	136.6	133.1	138.7
Underwear and neckwear, men's.....	77.5	78.5	78.9	79.9	146.4	153.6	152.0	138.1
Work shirts.....	115.5	124.2	126.5	141.3	204.0	223.3	226.6	260.0
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	81.5	84.9	84.2	91.6	132.0	152.9	148.3	161.0
Corsets and allied garments.....	81.5	83.0	84.6	89.8	136.4	141.3	144.9	137.1
Millinery.....	79.9	85.7	86.0	90.7	109.3	141.2	141.0	138.6
Handkerchiefs.....	63.4	67.5	67.5	79.6	108.4	121.4	119.1	100.0
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads.....	75.6	81.4	83.7	109.8	184.9	146.1	155.1	160.0
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.....	89.8	95.0	113.3	145.6	150.4	165.2	203.3	258.2
Textile bags.....	124.4	128.9	132.2	131.1	194.8	204.4	207.4	194.1
Leather and leather products.....	89.4	90.1	89.8	99.8	132.3	153.1	151.6	150.0
Leather.....	86.2	87.0	87.2	100.4	147.0	144.9	144.7	151.6
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	87.0	88.4	88.6	96.2	142.0	144.3	138.9	140.0
Boots and shoes.....	80.3	80.8	80.7	88.5	138.3	139.0	137.8	141.0
Leather goods and mittens.....	131.6	134.2	135.7	151.1	221.0	229.2	227.6	228.2
Trunks and suitcases.....	146.9	150.0	142.9	171.7	229.1	242.3	235.0	260.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

[1939 average = 100]

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1943	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1943
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Food.....	110.1	110.1	111.4	106.5	173.8	174.4	176.6	150.3
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	129.6	134.0	139.6	129.3	206.3	212.3	226.6	170.4
Butter.....	126.1	119.3	113.9	121.8	191.0	178.4	171.3	163.2
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	139.7	133.3	129.3	132.9	219.3	207.1	198.4	188.9
Ice cream.....	93.0	88.0	85.0	91.7	127.7	120.2	116.1	118.1
Flour.....	112.8	117.0	119.5	112.9	180.1	184.4	191.1	165.1
Feeds, prepared.....	129.0	135.2	140.4	142.4	213.4	220.0	228.8	227.3
Cereal preparations.....	126.1	128.0	128.8	123.2	210.4	220.7	217.8	214.5
Baking.....	110.5	111.5	111.8	107.1	160.4	163.0	161.1	143.4
Sugar refining, cane.....	98.7	100.3	102.5	92.9	153.3	161.6	156.2	119.5
Sugar, beet.....	40.4	34.9	36.3	39.7	60.8	51.8	56.9	59.2
Confectionery.....	116.1	118.5	118.6	110.3	183.4	191.2	187.4	161.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic.....	126.5	124.9	122.9	119.4	159.7	156.0	151.7	140.4
Malt liquors.....	133.8	132.3	130.6	120.9	192.1	185.8	181.8	155.9
Canning and preserving.....	73.3	67.0	69.9	66.9	139.7	126.8	133.0	114.1
Tobacco manufactures.....	89.5	89.5	93.6	90.9	142.8	146.6	154.9	146.8
Cigarettes.....	122.7	118.2	128.5	123.6	164.2	159.6	179.6	156.7
Cigars.....	72.9	74.7	75.4	88.7	133.0	142.8	142.1	144.3
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	81.7	85.6	89.6	89.8	114.8	120.1	128.4	125.1
Paper and allied products.....	115.4	117.0	117.7	117.7	183.6	186.4	185.9	175.5
Paper and pulp.....	106.2	107.3	108.0	108.4	175.1	176.4	176.3	167.2
Paper goods, other ³	125.9	127.2	126.7	125.8	194.9	198.1	194.9	182.0
Envelopes.....	113.2	115.1	117.1	119.4	169.2	176.3	176.5	167.6
Paper bags.....	122.8	122.9	123.3	110.3	200.6	199.8	200.0	165.6
Paper boxes.....	116.1	118.6	120.1	119.7	177.1	183.0	183.1	175.6
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	101.3	102.5	103.1	100.6	133.7	135.2	134.7	121.7
Newspapers and periodicals.....	92.9	92.9	92.6	95.8	113.8	114.1	113.0	109.8
Printing, book and job.....	104.9	106.7	108.4	101.0	144.4	146.5	147.0	123.9
Lithographing.....	96.1	96.2	95.4	96.2	130.1	132.6	130.3	121.2
Bookbinding.....	112.3	117.2	117.6	112.4	182.8	189.3	189.3	168.1
Chemicals and allied products.....	208.8	217.2	228.2	258.3	359.1	372.5	390.4	423.6
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	106.1	105.7	106.2	102.4	163.9	163.6	162.2	147.1
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	189.3	189.7	186.6	159.9	267.8	276.1	273.9	225.2
Perfumes and cosmetics.....	106.5	107.3	110.0	106.9	152.8	151.6	145.0	141.3
Soap.....	100.0	100.5	99.8	99.1	165.0	165.0	162.3	140.1
Rayon and allied products.....	107.7	105.4	108.1	106.8	171.0	172.0	169.3	157.3
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	172.7	172.5	174.5	162.4	290.0	294.1	296.1	261.8
Compressed and liquefied gases.....	152.6	151.9	155.3	160.7	266.6	263.1	273.7	262.9
Cottonseed oil.....	101.5	113.0	125.4	108.0	193.9	214.5	241.3	176.7
Fertilizers.....	139.4	148.0	141.3	188.4	285.7	305.4	274.1	208.8
Products of petroleum and coal.....	121.1	120.2	119.8	116.0	205.9	204.1	201.6	173.9
Petroleum refining.....	117.9	116.2	115.3	108.4	198.6	195.7	192.2	162.8
Coke and byproducts.....	105.4	105.9	106.9	115.7	178.7	180.4	181.9	171.5
Paving materials.....	57.3	56.5	54.2	55.3	100.3	99.6	94.5	94.3
Roofing materials.....	119.9	122.6	123.2	111.6	207.4	211.6	208.9	181.0
Rubber products.....	161.4	165.7	167.1	153.8	278.8	294.3	293.0	248.1
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	169.3	172.9	173.8	153.3	280.0	299.3	295.6	240.2
Rubber boots and shoes.....	135.8	143.8	144.3	146.5	242.9	254.6	252.9	243.8
Rubber goods, other.....	142.7	146.2	148.2	139.5	249.1	257.6	260.6	228.0
Miscellaneous industries.....	156.4	158.8	160.3	164.9	285.7	301.3	301.9	290.3
Photographic apparatus.....	169.1	169.9	172.0	161.8	270.9	280.0	278.5	252.1
Pianos, organs, and parts.....	111.5	119.3	127.6	124.8	212.7	228.4	244.5	235.5
Games, toys, and dolls.....	84.0	84.8	85.6	81.8	160.1	160.3	161.2	140.5
Buttons.....	92.1	92.9	95.5	101.0	175.1	177.1	190.5	173.5
Fire extinguishers ⁴	656.8	675.1	698.1	790.3	1381.0	1422.7	1423.7	1452.0

¹Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Indexes for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data.

²Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized United States Government agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines; ammunition; communication equipment; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; firearms; fireworks; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment; radios and phonographs; and shipbuilding and boatbuilding.

³Comparable indexes for earlier months available upon request.

⁴Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:

Paper goods, other.—February 1943 to July 1943, employment indexes to 128.1, 127.7, 125.8, 126.1, 127.9 and 194.1; February 1943 pay-roll index to 176.9, May to 183.3, June to 189.1 and August 1943 to January 1944 to 183.4, 191.7, 192.2, 189.5 and 193.6.

TABLE 4.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	April 1944	March 1944	February 1944	April 1943
Anthracite mining.....	68.4	69.1	66.8	78.4
Bituminous-coal mining.....	360	366	370	364
Metal mining.....	85.0	86.9	88.6	96.1
Iron.....	28.8	28.5	28.8	30.1
Copper.....	28.3	29.4	30.1	31.1
Lead and zinc.....	17.7	18.3	18.7	19.1
Gold and silver.....	6.1	6.3	6.4	6.1
Miscellaneous.....	4.1	4.4	4.6	4.8
Electric light and power ¹	203	204	204	213
Street railways and busses ¹	231	232	232	238
Hotels (year-round) ¹	352	352	352	358
Power laundries.....	247	249	250	257
Cleaning and dyeing.....	81.4	79.2	77.1	84.1
Class I steam railroads ²	1,413	1,400	1,387	1,367

¹ Data include salaried personnel.² Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries

[1939 average = 100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1943	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1943
Coal mining:								
Anthracite.....	82.6	83.5	84.2	88.8	142.3	157.8	190.2	186.1
Bituminous.....	97.1	98.7	99.8	106.2	214.2	225.0	231.6	198.1
Metal mining.....	96.4	98.5	100.5	112.6	152.7	155.6	157.0	167.1
Iron.....	142.8	141.7	143.0	164.7	229.2	228.4	222.4	167.7
Copper.....	118.8	123.1	123.9	134.7	191.4	202.0	206.7	204.1
Lead and zinc.....	114.2	117.8	120.6	124.0	209.2	215.4	215.8	204.4
Gold and silver.....	24.8	25.5	26.0	32.6	32.7	33.4	33.0	30.7
Miscellaneous.....	102.8	110.0	114.9	171.4	167.9	170.3	176.9	161.9
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	84.1	82.8	82.9	98.2	150.0	144.9	139.7	101.9
Crude-petroleum production ¹	82.0	81.6	81.2	82.1	129.5	125.7	126.9	100.0
Public utilities:								
Telephone and telegraph.....	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)
Electric light and power.....	83.1	83.5	83.6	87.3	112.9	112.5	112.3	100.0
Street railways and busses.....	119.2	119.6	119.8	117.1	165.4	164.9	166.7	151.1
Wholesale trade.....	95.1	95.4	95.7	96.5	134.0	133.4	132.7	118.1
Retail trade.....	97.7	96.9	96.0	100.8	124.3	122.6	121.4	118.1
Food.....	106.9	107.8	106.6	106.7	133.6	133.7	133.0	124.4
General merchandise.....	111.2	108.6	106.5	116.2	135.2	131.7	128.3	116.6
Apparel.....	111.1	106.4	102.4	119.7	144.0	136.5	129.6	118.1
Furniture and housefurnishings.....	62.8	62.8	63.5	67.9	85.8	85.0	85.3	81.1
Automotive.....	65.3	65.4	65.8	62.0	93.9	92.7	93.2	81.9
Lumber and building materials.....	89.1	89.3	88.3	91.1	124.2	124.2	122.5	117.6
Hotels (year-round) ¹	109.2	109.2	109.3	105.1	154.5	153.6	152.7	132.9
Power laundries.....	109.5	110.3	110.5	118.4	185.7	155.2	154.4	100.7
Cleaning and dyeing.....	120.6	117.3	114.2	125.2	179.8	173.7	165.3	174.1
Class I steam railroads ²	143.1	141.7	140.4	136.4	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)
Water transportation ³	226.1	211.7	205.7	124.9	524.6	490.5	472.6	281.1

¹ Does not include well drilling or rig building.² Data are not available because of the merger of Western Union and Postal Telegraph.³ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, tips not included.⁴ Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.⁵ Not available.⁶ Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trade only.

AVERAGE EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings and hours and average hourly earnings for February, March, and April 1944, where available, are given in table 6 for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. The average weekly earnings for individual industries are computed by dividing the weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the

Industries

in thousands

April

1940

71.4

294

18.3

21.1

19.2

4.1

4.6

253

227

297

14.5

1,567

Manufacturing

Indexes

Feb.

1944

Apr.

1945

100.2

138.2

231.0

184.9

157.0

102.3

222.4

263.7

206.7

233.3

215.8

298.6

33.0

26.7

176.9

261.9

139.7

162.3

126.9

112.3

106.7

131.7

132.4

131.1

121.4

118.6

133.0

133.6

129.5

138.3

85.3

65.1

93.2

48.8

122.5

117.8

152.7

132.9

total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply information on man-hours, the average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings shown in that table are necessarily based on data furnished by a slightly smaller number of reporting firms. Because of variation in the size and composition of the reporting sample, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The average weekly hours and hourly earnings for the manufacturing groups are weighted arithmetic means of the averages for the individual industries, estimated employment being used as weights for weekly hours and estimated aggregate hours as weights for hourly earnings. The average weekly earnings for these groups are computed by multiplying the average weekly hours by the corresponding average hourly earnings.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries

MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944
All manufacturing.....	\$45.56	\$45.63	\$45.47	45.0	45.4	45.3	101.2	100.6	100.3
Durable goods.....	51.66	51.33	51.40	46.6	46.7	46.7	110.9	110.2	110.0
Nondurable goods.....	36.17	36.57	36.32	42.5	43.2	43.2	85.0	84.6	84.2
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products.....	50.09	50.23	50.30	46.5	46.9	47.1	107.7	107.1	106.9
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	53.12	52.74	53.11	45.9	46.0	46.2	115.8	114.8	115.0
Gray-iron and semisteel castings.....	50.22	50.64	50.95	47.2	47.8	48.4	106.6	106.3	105.6
Malleable-iron castings.....	48.70	50.47	50.75	47.1	48.3	48.6	103.0	104.4	104.4
Steel castings.....	50.59	51.18	51.17	45.7	46.7	46.8	110.7	109.6	109.4
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	40.63	39.76	38.70	46.7	45.8	44.6	86.9	86.8	86.8
Tin cans and other tinware.....	39.04	38.98	39.66	44.2	44.5	45.1	88.3	87.6	88.1
Wirework.....	49.50	49.66	50.16	47.4	47.9	48.2	104.5	103.8	104.1
Cutlery and edge tools.....	43.99	42.90	43.16	46.8	46.4	46.5	94.1	92.4	92.8
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	46.11	45.86	45.98	47.6	47.8	47.8	96.9	96.1	96.3
Hardware.....	44.99	45.04	43.73	47.3	47.8	46.8	95.1	94.2	93.4
Plumbers' supplies.....	46.82	47.33	46.74	47.0	47.7	47.5	100.8	100.1	98.8
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	46.62	47.73	46.91	46.5	47.4	47.4	100.9	100.7	99.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	48.28	48.45	48.56	47.8	48.1	48.2	101.1	100.8	100.7
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	45.22	46.22	47.06	45.0	46.1	46.6	100.4	100.3	100.9
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.....	54.86	56.45	55.33	48.9	49.6	49.5	113.0	113.4	111.8
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.....	51.74	49.66	49.37	48.4	47.5	47.7	106.9	104.6	103.4
Boils, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	48.37	49.87	49.87	47.4	48.5	48.9	102.1	102.9	101.9
Forgings, iron and steel.....	58.33	59.87	59.79	47.5	48.5	48.6	122.9	123.6	123.1
Screw-machine products and wood screws.....	49.26	49.60	49.49	48.4	48.8	49.8	101.9	101.6	101.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	42.50	43.72	42.25	42.9	44.2	43.1	99.1	98.7	98.1
Firearms.....	61.08	60.99	62.25	47.0	47.5	48.3	129.5	128.3	128.2
Electrical machinery.....	46.86	47.19	47.06	46.2	46.7	46.8	101.5	101.0	100.5
Electrical equipment.....	49.45	49.88	49.58	46.7	47.2	47.2	106.0	105.7	105.2
Radioes and phonographs.....	40.47	41.09	41.09	45.5	46.2	46.3	89.1	89.0	88.8
Communication equipment.....	44.03	43.72	44.01	45.1	45.3	46.1	96.8	95.8	94.9
Machinery, except electrical.....	54.44	54.56	54.35	48.8	49.2	49.1	111.5	110.9	110.7
Machinery and machine-shop products.....	52.53	53.28	52.99	48.1	48.7	48.6	109.5	109.2	108.9
Engines and turbines.....	59.30	60.08	60.14	49.3	49.7	50.1	120.6	121.3	120.7
Tractors.....	52.54	52.95	52.85	46.7	47.2	47.3	112.5	112.3	111.8
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.....	53.74	52.89	52.61	48.1	47.7	47.8	111.8	110.9	110.0
Machine tools.....	56.54	56.97	55.85	50.7	51.0	50.4	111.4	111.6	110.7

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>									
Machinery, except electrical—Continued.							<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Machine-tool accessories.....	\$58.78	\$59.17	\$59.60	40.9	50.4	50.7	118.0	117.5	117.8
Textile machinery.....	47.02	47.34	47.55	40.0	40.4	40.6	96.0	95.8	96.0
Typewriters.....	48.25	48.65	48.54	48.9	48.9	48.6	98.6	99.4	99.8
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines.....	50.63	60.21	50.97	49.4	49.9	49.8	121.4	121.3	121.0
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic.....	45.83	45.68	46.53	45.8	46.1	46.1	101.3	100.0	101.0
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial.....	58.19	58.63	58.16	52.3	52.9	52.9	111.9	111.6	110.7
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.....	51.52	51.28	51.50	47.4	47.3	47.4	108.6	108.3	108.6
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	59.31	58.73	58.43	47.2	47.0	46.9	125.7	125.1	124.7
Locomotives.....	64.71	66.45	64.37	49.5	50.7	49.8	130.8	131.0	129.3
Cars, electric and steam-railroad.....	51.44	53.56	52.39	45.4	46.8	46.7	112.6	113.9	112.3
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines.....	53.33	53.09	53.93	46.9	47.0	47.4	113.7	114.3	113.8
Aircraft engines.....	62.53	61.93	61.87	47.7	47.6	47.7	131.0	130.2	130.1
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding.....	62.89	61.46	60.83	47.3	46.6	46.2	133.0	131.9	131.7
Motoreycles, bicycles, and parts.....	48.22	46.79	47.71	46.8	45.7	46.3	102.9	102.4	103.3
Automobiles.....	58.78	58.21	58.13	46.6	46.3	46.3	126.2	125.8	125.7
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	48.76	48.95	48.88	46.6	47.0	47.0	104.5	104.3	104.0
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals.....	49.62	48.24	47.62	46.7	45.9	45.7	106.3	105.1	104.4
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum.....	52.88	53.84	53.46	47.7	48.4	48.3	111.0	111.2	110.8
Clocks and watches.....	42.75	42.60	42.55	46.7	46.7	46.7	91.7	91.4	91.2
Jewelry (precious metals) and jeweler's findings.....	42.24	41.85	41.30	44.9	45.0	44.8	92.9	92.4	91.5
Silverware and plated ware.....	46.86	46.95	46.46	46.3	46.3	46.4	101.4	101.3	100.2
Lighting equipment.....	46.73	47.33	46.77	45.5	45.8	45.9	102.8	103.3	101.9
Aluminum manufactures.....	48.61	48.87	49.73	45.9	46.3	46.9	105.9	105.6	105.9
Lumber and timber basic products.....	34.05	33.30	33.03	43.2	43.2	42.9	78.8	77.1	77.0
Sawmills and logging camps.....	33.14	32.26	31.94	42.7	42.6	42.2	77.5	75.7	75.6
Planing and plywood mills.....	36.86	36.42	36.22	44.8	44.9	44.9	82.5	81.2	80.9
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	34.78	35.36	34.97	43.6	44.4	44.8	79.6	79.6	79.2
Furniture.....	35.46	36.29	35.89	43.6	44.4	44.4	81.7	81.6	81.2
Caskets and other morticians' goods.....	38.15	38.46	39.13	45.1	45.6	46.3	84.7	84.6	84.9
Wood preserving.....	31.63	31.38	30.74	41.0	42.1	41.3	76.0	74.5	74.5
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	38.47	38.47	38.00	43.2	43.6	43.3	89.0	88.2	87.9
Glass and glassware.....	39.18	39.65	39.32	41.9	42.6	42.4	93.7	93.2	92.9
Glass products made from purchased glass.....	33.64	33.47	33.77	44.1	44.0	44.2	77.0	76.9	76.4
Cement.....	39.82	38.73	38.50	45.9	45.3	45.1	90.7	89.4	88.9
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	31.70	32.06	31.98	40.5	41.4	41.1	77.9	77.0	77.2
Pottery and related products.....	35.86	35.30	34.38	41.9	41.0	40.7	86.6	85.6	85.3
Gypsum.....	44.22	43.31	43.09	48.6	47.5	47.8	89.8	91.2	91.4
Lime.....	38.11	36.72	36.33	43.3	43.2	42.9	78.3	76.6	76.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	38.92	37.82	36.58	43.3	43.0	42.0	89.9	87.4	86.5
Abrasives.....	46.22	45.98	45.09	46.5	47.1	46.8	99.4	97.6	97.5
Asbestos products.....	46.15	47.10	46.10	47.6	48.4	48.0	97.0	97.3	96.1
<i>Nondurable goods</i>									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	28.86	28.89	28.66	41.2	41.9	41.8	70.1	69.0	68.6
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.....	25.74	25.26	24.98	41.3	41.8	41.7	62.4	60.5	59.9
Cotton smallwares.....	31.85	32.75	32.11	42.4	43.3	43.1	75.2	75.6	74.7
Silk and rayon goods.....	28.27	28.53	28.29	41.1	42.4	42.3	68.8	67.2	66.9
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	34.79	35.32	35.05	41.6	42.4	42.2	83.7	83.3	83.1
Hosiery.....	28.08	28.90	28.73	37.8	38.9	39.0	74.1	74.4	73.7
Knitted cloth.....	31.31	31.37	31.63	42.9	43.5	43.4	72.3	72.0	72.3
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.....	29.00	29.14	29.89	39.5	40.0	40.3	72.4	71.9	73.3
Knitted underwear.....	26.15	26.23	26.08	39.9	40.9	40.9	64.7	63.1	63.1
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	33.41	33.79	33.22	44.5	45.0	44.6	75.2	74.9	74.4
Carpets and rugs, wool.....	38.11	38.40	38.74	42.0	42.5	43.8	89.6	88.6	88.8
Hats, fur-felt.....	41.64	42.56	41.95	41.2	42.0	41.7	101.6	101.5	101.0
Jute goods, except felts.....	32.50	33.65	33.18	42.8	44.9	44.8	76.0	75.0	74.3
Cordage and twine.....	32.14	31.27	31.56	45.0	44.6	44.9	71.3	70.0	70.1

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944
Nondurable goods—Continued									
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	\$28.09	\$30.71	\$30.11	37.3	38.9	38.7	Cents 77.0	78.9	77.8
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	30.44	31.77	30.98	38.0	39.3	38.8	78.9	80.2	79.3
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	23.46	24.34	23.58	38.6	38.0	37.4	64.2	63.9	63.0
Underwear and neckwear, men's.....	25.23	26.39	26.00	37.0	38.0	38.1	68.7	69.4	68.4
Work shirts.....	19.43	19.89	19.80	37.3	38.2	38.6	51.4	51.6	51.0
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	34.10	37.83	36.93	36.1	38.1	38.0	92.5	96.9	95.2
Corsets and allied garments.....	29.28	29.71	29.95	40.8	41.4	41.4	71.9	71.9	72.5
Millinery.....	33.30	40.09	39.90	31.5	35.1	35.6	88.3	94.7	92.8
Handkerchiefs.....	22.30	23.46	22.97	38.0	38.6	38.6	62.0	60.8	59.5
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads.....	23.96	24.11	24.93	37.4	37.5	39.0	63.8	64.0	63.9
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.....	29.27	30.40	31.63	40.0	41.9	41.9	73.6	73.5	76.2
Textile bags.....	27.47	27.80	27.51	40.7	41.7	41.4	67.5	66.7	66.6
Leather and leather products.....	32.47	32.36	32.06	41.1	41.4	41.2	79.0	78.2	77.8
Leather.....	42.38	41.37	40.96	45.4	45.1	44.7	93.7	92.0	91.7
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	32.95	32.90	32.41	43.0	42.8	42.7	78.0	78.3	77.4
Boots and shoes.....	30.38	30.43	30.13	40.1	40.5	40.3	75.4	74.7	74.3
Leather gloves and mittens.....	29.14	29.55	28.91	38.6	39.5	39.2	75.9	75.3	74.6
Trunks and suitcases.....	32.61	33.90	33.73	40.7	41.5	41.5	79.7	80.3	80.3
Food.....	37.90	38.05	38.06	44.8	45.4	45.5	84.6	83.9	83.8
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	43.74	43.59	44.76	47.8	48.4	49.4	92.0	90.3	90.9
Butter.....	33.51	33.09	33.25	47.3	46.9	47.4	70.2	69.7	69.5
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	35.82	35.55	35.07	49.8	49.0	48.6	71.8	72.5	72.1
Ice cream.....	37.78	37.63	37.54	46.5	46.3	46.1	78.3	78.0	78.0
Flour.....	40.01	39.73	40.20	48.6	48.6	49.1	82.8	81.9	82.1
Cereal preparations.....	42.89	44.02	43.15	45.0	46.3	45.9	94.6	95.1	93.9
Baking.....	37.04	37.42	36.91	44.6	45.2	45.0	83.1	82.9	82.2
Sugar refining, cane.....	37.21	38.69	36.87	45.1	46.4	44.5	82.5	83.1	82.2
Sugar, beet.....	36.82	37.17	39.27	37.0	38.4	40.0	90.4	96.8	98.1
Confectionery.....	29.11	29.99	29.26	41.1	42.2	41.8	71.6	71.4	70.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic.....	33.46	33.13	32.94	43.0	42.8	42.7	78.1	77.5	76.5
Malt liquors.....	50.45	49.24	49.06	45.9	45.1	45.1	110.0	109.4	109.0
Canning and preserving.....	30.64	30.56	30.75	39.9	40.7	40.5	77.5	75.9	76.6
Tobacco manufactures.....	27.00	27.75	28.00	39.0	40.9	41.3	69.1	67.9	67.8
Cigarettes.....	28.57	28.97	29.68	37.8	39.8	40.6	75.6	72.9	73.1
Cigars.....	26.01	27.28	26.96	40.4	42.4	42.2	64.4	64.5	63.9
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	24.78	24.76	25.22	37.8	38.3	39.4	65.6	64.6	64.1
Paper and allied products.....	38.09	38.30	37.84	45.5	45.8	45.8	83.7	83.4	82.9
Paper and pulp.....	41.59	41.50	41.19	47.6	47.6	47.4	87.5	87.1	86.9
Envelopes.....	35.77	36.72	36.19	44.5	45.4	45.0	80.4	80.9	80.4
Paper bags.....	33.21	32.95	32.88	44.1	44.2	44.2	75.1	74.7	74.6
Paper boxes.....	33.72	34.18	33.83	43.1	43.8	43.7	78.4	78.2	77.5
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	42.88	42.87	42.49	40.5	40.9	40.7	105.8	104.8	104.4
Newspaper and periodicals.....	47.16	47.17	46.78	37.6	38.0	37.9	122.8	122.4	121.6
Printing, book and job.....	41.35	41.18	40.60	41.9	42.0	41.7	98.3	97.3	97.0
Lithographing.....	44.39	45.11	44.66	43.0	44.4	44.1	103.0	101.6	101.2
Chemicals and allied products.....	43.07	42.93	42.74	45.6	45.8	45.7	94.4	93.8	93.5
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	45.19	45.16	44.57	47.3	47.4	46.9	95.7	95.6	95.1
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	33.72	34.72	34.92	42.5	43.8	44.1	79.5	79.6	79.6
Soap.....	47.06	46.81	46.35	47.7	47.4	47.7	98.7	98.8	98.0
Rayon and allied products.....	38.59	38.56	38.01	42.6	42.8	42.5	90.5	90.0	89.4
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	51.20	51.07	50.57	40.7	40.7	40.5	109.7	109.4	108.7
Explosives and safety fuses.....	47.00	46.72	46.90	48.4	48.2	46.4	101.3	101.2	101.2
Ammunition, small-arms.....	46.19	44.03	44.14	46.7	45.9	46.2	96.8	96.0	95.6
Fireworks.....	42.16	44.24	42.19	45.4	47.4	45.7	92.8	93.2	92.2
Cottonseed oil.....	28.94	28.83	28.10	49.9	50.1	51.1	52.0	51.5	51.0
Fertilizers.....	27.71	28.31	28.70	43.4	45.0	43.1	63.8	62.9	61.9
Products of petroleum and coal.....	54.34	54.32	53.86	46.3	46.7	46.5	116.9	116.4	115.9
Petroleum refining.....	57.78	57.75	57.25	46.3	46.7	46.5	124.0	123.6	123.3
Coke and byproducts.....	46.26	46.72	46.60	45.5	46.0	46.0	101.9	101.3	101.1
Roofing materials.....	44.51	44.46	43.66	43.1	43.0	42.6	92.6	92.7	91.8
Rubber products.....	48.12	49.60	48.95	44.7	45.7	45.7	107.6	108.6	107.2
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	55.63	58.38	57.21	45.2	46.6	46.3	123.4	125.6	124.0
Rubber boots and shoes.....	40.33	39.86	39.55	44.5	44.5	44.9	90.5	89.6	88.2
Rubber goods, other.....	40.84	41.21	41.17	44.3	44.9	45.1	92.1	92.0	91.4
Miscellaneous industries.....	43.43	43.61	43.35	45.9	46.3	46.2	94.7	94.2	93.8
Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment.....	55.28	55.22	54.85	50.5	50.6	50.5	109.7	109.4	108.7
Photographic apparatus.....	47.79	49.17	48.39	45.7	46.9	46.5	104.7	104.9	104.2
Pianos, organs, and parts.....	46.26	46.41	46.52	46.3	46.4	46.6	100.4	100.4	100.2

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944	Apr. 1944	Mar. 1944	Feb. 1944
Coal mining:							Cents	Cents	Cents
Anthracite.....	\$44.30	\$48.67	\$58.12	38.2	41.7	46.5	116.6	116.2	124.5
Bituminous.....	50.62	52.24	53.03	42.8	44.5	45.2	118.4	117.6	117.9
Metal mining.....	44.62	44.59	44.04	44.0	44.5	44.3	101.2	99.9	96.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	38.60	37.82	36.45	45.4	45.3	44.0	84.5	83.1	82.8
Crude-petroleum production.....	52.87	51.74	52.62	44.8	45.5	45.2	116.6	112.1	114.3
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph.....	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
Electric light and power.....	47.53	47.09	46.54	42.3	43.0	42.8	111.0	109.2	100.1
Street railways and busses ³	46.44	46.36	46.74	49.7	49.8	50.3	93.3	92.2	91.6
Trade:									
Wholesale.....	41.83	41.51	41.36	42.5	42.8	42.6	98.4	96.6	96.7
Retail.....	26.06	25.92	25.98	41.4	41.7	41.0	39.0	68.4	67.6
Food.....	29.60	29.37	29.80	40.1	39.9	40.1	67.9	68.1	67.9
General merchandise.....	21.51	21.44	21.84	37.6	37.6	37.4	57.5	57.0	56.8
Apparel ⁴	27.61	27.45	27.07	37.2	37.1	37.0	79.9	77.4	75.1
Furniture and housefurnishings.....	37.15	36.72	36.34	40.9	41.7	42.0	87.4	86.8	87.0
Automotive.....	40.78	40.16	40.09	46.4	46.7	46.8	89.5	87.7	86.7
Lumber and building materials.....	36.61	36.54	36.43	43.7	43.7	42.7	83.8	87.9	86.9
Hotels (year-round) ⁴	22.26	22.18	22.07	44.8	44.8	44.9	49.1	48.8	48.4
Power laundries.....	26.29	26.11	26.03	43.7	43.7	43.7	60.6	60.1	59.7
Cleaning and dyeing.....	30.13	30.11	29.27	43.5	44.0	43.5	71.6	70.8	70.5
Brokerage.....	53.19	53.46	51.98	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)
Insurance.....	44.24	45.19	44.39	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)
Private building construction.....	50.18	49.85	48.77	38.7	38.5	37.6	129.7	129.6	126.7

¹ These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnish man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings for individual industries are based on a smaller sample than are weekly earnings. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

² Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:

Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.—December 1943 and January 1944, average weekly earnings to \$50.42 and \$49.56.

Street railways and busses.—January 1944, average weekly hours to 49.2, average hourly earnings to 91.3 cents.

Retail trade apparel group.—November and December 1943, average hourly earnings to 72.8 and 73.1 cents.

³ Data are not available because of the merger of Western Union and Postal Telegraph.

⁴ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, tips not included.

⁵ Not available.



Revised Estimates of Employment in Nonagricultural Establishments, 1939-44

THE total number of employees in nonagricultural establishments in March 1944 was 38,681,000, according to revised estimates prepared by the Bureau's Division of Employment Statistics. This represents an increase of more than 9 million employees in manufacturing, trade, services, government, and other phases of industrial activity in the 5 years since March 1939. The estimates include all wage and salaried workers in nonagricultural establishments. They do not include persons in the armed forces, agriculture, proprietors and self-employed persons, unpaid family workers, or domestic servants. Persons having more than one employer during a single pay-roll period are counted more than once in these estimates. As job opportunities have been increasing since 1939, it is likely that such dual employment is a somewhat more important factor now than it was 5 years ago.

As was to be expected, the greater part of the expansion, 6½ millions or almost three-fourths of the total, was in the manufacturing division and was concentrated almost entirely in the munitions industries. The increases of about 2 million in government and 1 million in transportation and public utilities also reflect the widespread effects of the war activity. The only large decline was in construction. This industrial activity expanded between March 1939 and September 1941 but has declined since then, because of Government restrictions on private building. The increase in the first 2½ years amounted to slightly more than 1 million employees; the decrease since that time was almost 2 million, indicating a net decline of about 800,000 during the 5-year period.

The Bureau's estimates of employment are designed primarily to measure month-to-month changes in the number of employed workers. They are based on pay-roll reports for the current and preceding months from identical establishments. Long-run employment trends are measured by linking the monthly changes together and then adjusting the resulting series to comprehensive counts of workers in various industries, particularly the counts of the Social Security Board of workers covered by State unemployment-compensation programs. The methodology for the revision resembles very closely that used in making the previous adjustment in August 1942.

The current revision represents an upward adjustment of 1.7 million in the total nonagricultural estimate for March 1944. The estimate as previously published was 36,946,000 workers, while the present revision raises the total to 38,681,000. Of the total upward revision of 1.7 millions in March figures, 1 million was in manufacturing. This change, which raised the estimate of manufacturing employment for March from 15.5 millions to 16.5 millions was made necessary because of the impossibility of obtaining timely reports from all of the hundreds of new war plants which have entered into production since mid-1942. The next largest revision (700,000) was made in the estimate of employment in trade, raising the level of that series from 6.2 millions to 6.9 millions.

The estimates for the manufacturing division, previously adjusted to final unemployment-compensation figures for 1940, have been adjusted to similar data through the last quarter of 1942. Adjustments in the wage-earner employment series for all manufacturing and for major industrial groups are being made for the period January 1941 to date.

For trade and for finance and service industries, revised estimates have been prepared back to January 1939. These series, unlike those for other industries, had not previously been adjusted to the levels indicated by unemployment-compensation data. Appropriate changes in the transportation, construction, and government series have also been made back to January 1939. In manufacturing and mining, however, the revisions begin with January 1941.

Revised Estimates of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments in the United States by Major Industry Division¹

Year and month	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)						
	Total	Manu- facturing	Mining	Con- struction	Trans- portation and public utilities	Trade	Finance, service, and miscel- laneous
1939: Average.....	30,353	10,078	845	1,753	2,912	6,618	4,160
1940: Average.....	31,784	10,780	916	1,722	3,013	6,906	4,310
1941: Average.....	35,668	12,974	947	2,236	3,248	7,378	4,438
1942: Average.....	38,447	15,051	970	2,078	3,433	7,263	4,447
1943: Average.....	39,728	15,924	891	1,259	3,619	7,030	4,115
1939:							
January.....	28,914	9,535	879	1,468	2,787	6,325	4,037
February.....	29,025	9,671	875	1,453	2,792	6,313	4,040
March.....	29,308	9,787	875	1,437	2,813	6,406	4,070
April.....	29,470	9,787	880	1,677	2,847	6,610	4,132
May.....	29,842	9,732	701	1,822	2,872	6,550	4,199
June.....	30,326	9,775	842	1,974	2,934	6,599	4,244
July.....	30,349	9,817	836	2,065	2,941	6,594	4,232
August.....	30,713	10,117	853	2,068	2,947	6,513	4,222
September.....	31,445	10,489	883	2,027	2,904	6,703	4,127
October.....	31,700	10,780	931	1,851	3,047	6,760	4,200
November.....	31,456	10,746	943	1,681	3,009	6,837	4,146
December.....	31,688	10,694	928	1,491	2,980	7,368	4,135
1940:							
January.....	30,447	10,453	918	1,291	2,925	6,622	4,153
February.....	30,379	10,475	916	1,231	2,934	6,585	4,176
March.....	30,639	10,439	916	1,272	2,930	6,787	4,221
April.....	30,755	10,343	899	1,483	2,946	6,720	4,281
May.....	31,158	10,298	902	1,674	2,996	6,813	4,357
June.....	31,513	10,353	894	1,575	3,028	6,865	4,386
July.....	31,570	10,411	907	1,984	3,039	6,757	4,377
August.....	32,103	10,530	919	1,999	3,060	6,707	4,371
September.....	32,792	11,182	927	1,986	3,085	6,986	4,384
October.....	33,007	11,405	934	1,916	3,102	7,075	4,357
November.....	33,228	11,523	934	1,971	3,099	7,184	4,351
December.....	33,514	11,647	931	1,986	3,045	7,677	4,305
1941:							
January.....	32,678	11,603	933	1,929	3,011	6,888	4,301
February.....	33,162	11,874	930	1,895	3,020	6,909	4,308
March.....	33,712	12,113	943	1,921	3,068	7,027	4,353
April.....	34,250	12,394	937	2,026	3,145	7,288	4,438
May.....	35,210	12,648	944	2,230	3,224	7,265	4,508
June.....	35,939	12,967	960	2,373	3,287	7,388	4,530
July.....	36,425	13,275	981	2,527	3,341	7,345	4,509
August.....	36,950	13,540	1,002	2,619	3,380	7,427	4,503
September.....	37,471	13,784	1,010	2,630	3,398	7,546	4,499
October.....	37,439	13,847	1,013	2,456	3,405	7,612	4,472
November.....	37,230	13,821	1,009	2,270	3,369	7,714	4,434
December.....	37,349	13,817	1,007	1,967	3,333	8,123	4,403
1942:							
January.....	36,250	13,740	991	1,808	3,305	7,294	4,452
February.....	36,419	13,971	976	1,756	3,290	7,229	4,424
March.....	36,822	14,184	976	1,767	3,314	7,258	4,478
April.....	37,454	14,391	977	1,951	3,385	7,246	4,541
May.....	38,001	14,576	977	2,089	3,419	7,244	4,569
June.....	38,296	14,791	976	2,139	3,453	7,170	4,623
July.....	38,760	15,143	982	2,306	3,485	7,066	4,558
August.....	39,395	15,519	978	2,437	3,500	7,078	4,553
September.....	39,653	15,800	967	2,547	3,517	7,155	4,582
October.....	39,445	15,948	936	2,286	3,507	7,296	4,530
November.....	39,952	16,129	949	2,158	3,503	7,382	4,512
December.....	40,475	16,415	938	1,898	3,507	7,743	4,587
1943:							
January.....	39,364	16,423	922	1,747	3,487	6,955	4,105
February.....	39,344	16,599	919	1,578	3,485	6,887	4,105
March.....	39,551	16,747	915	1,476	3,520	6,932	4,080
April.....	39,724	16,774	903	1,402	3,570	7,041	4,089
May.....	39,674	16,753	889	1,385	3,597	6,953	4,102
June.....	39,359	16,908	889	1,288	3,656	6,982	4,174
July.....	39,921	17,059	888	1,222	3,689	6,920	4,230
August.....	39,860	17,182	882	1,169	3,694	6,875	4,172
September.....	39,678	17,136	880	1,091	3,688	6,936	4,079
October.....	39,718	17,194	873	1,002	3,689	7,076	4,037
November.....	39,847	17,238	863	918	3,683	7,245	4,078
December.....	40,197	17,080	867	829	3,669	7,554	4,127
1944:							
January.....	38,965	16,825	858	764	3,664	6,919	4,128
February.....	38,840	16,735	858	715	3,704	6,867	4,131
March.....	38,881	16,509	852	678	3,723	6,919	4,129

¹ Estimates include all full- and part-time wage and salaried workers in nonagricultural establishments who are employed during the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Proprietors, self-employed persons, domestic servants, and personnel of the armed forces are excluded.

² Preliminary.

Civilian Labor Force, May 1944

INCREASES of 670,000 in employment and 110,000 in unemployment combined to raise the civilian labor force by 780,000 between April and May, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. In May the civilian labor force totaled 52,840,000 persons, including 51,960,000 employed and 880,000 unemployed. This was the fourth consecutive month that the volume of unemployment was below the million mark.

A seasonal gain of approximately 1,100,000 workers in agriculture was the dominant factor behind the increase in the civilian labor force between April and May. The addition of 700,000 women to the agricultural working force brought the total number of women working on farms to 1,500,000 in May—200,000 below the level of the same month in 1943; men totaled 7,100,000 or about 100,000 less than in May 1943.

Nonagricultural employment declined by 430,000 from the Easter seasonal peak which coincided with the Census enumeration for April 1944. Most of the decline in nonagricultural employment occurred among men, of whom there were about 1,100,000 fewer in nonagricultural industries than there were in May 1943; however, the number in the armed forces increased by 2,200,000 during the year. The number of women in nonagricultural employment was about 800,000 above the level for May 1943.

Civilian Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status and by Sex, April and May 1940-44¹

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Item	Estimated number (in thousands) of persons 14 years of age and over ²									
	1944		1943		1942		1941		1940	
	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April
Total civilian labor force	52,840	52,060	53,550	52,540	54,340	53,850	53,880	53,090	53,890	53,310
Unemployment ³	880	770	920	950	2,310	2,740	5,120	5,810	7,490	7,800
Employment.....	51,960	51,290	52,630	51,590	52,030	51,110	48,760	47,280	46,400	45,510
Nonagricultural.....	43,360	43,790	43,720	43,720	42,980	42,690	39,550	38,870	36,490	36,530
Agricultural.....	8,600	7,500	8,910	7,870	9,050	8,420	9,210	8,410	9,920	8,980
Males										
Civilian labor force.....	34,910	34,880	36,260	35,960	39,820	39,710	40,270	40,230	40,640	40,220
Unemployment ³	420	440	530	520	1,460	1,890	3,700	4,310	5,550	5,970
Employment.....	34,490	34,440	35,730	35,470	38,360	37,820	36,570	35,920	35,090	34,250
Nonagricultural.....	27,400	27,750	28,520	28,680	30,740	30,330	28,610	28,180	26,230	25,960
Agricultural.....	7,090	6,690	7,210	6,790	7,620	7,490	7,960	7,740	8,870	8,290
Females										
Civilian labor force.....	17,930	17,180	17,290	16,580	14,520	14,140	13,610	12,860	13,250	13,090
Unemployment ³	460	330	390	430	850	850	1,420	1,500	1,940	1,830
Employment.....	17,470	16,850	16,900	16,150	13,670	13,290	12,190	11,360	11,310	11,260
Nonagricultural.....	15,960	16,040	15,200	15,040	12,240	12,360	10,940	10,690	10,260	10,570
Agricultural.....	1,510	810	1,700	1,080	1,430	980	1,250	670	1,050	690

¹ Estimates for period prior to November 1943 revised April 24, 1944.

² All data exclude persons in institutions.

³ Includes persons on public emergency projects prior to July 1943.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

July 1944

Cost and Standards of Living

A critical analysis of the Meany-Thomas report on the cost of living. New York 17, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1944. 36 pp.

Current living costs as related to standards of public assistance in Pennsylvania, December 1943. Harrisburg, Department of Public Assistance, 1944. 37 pp.; mimeographed.

The Smiths and their wartime budgets. By Maxwell S. Stewart. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1944. 32 pp., diagrams. (Public affairs pamphlet No. 88.) 10 cents.

A summary of factual data obtained largely from official reports of the Office of Price Administration and the Office of War Information. The pamphlet emphasizes the problems encountered by the Office of Price Administration and the policies and procedures of that agency.

The steelworkers in 1943. [Pittsburgh], United Steelworkers of America, [1944?]. 31 pp., charts.

Study of incomes and expenditures of steelworkers' families in September-November 1943.

El costo de la vida obrera en América. By Ana Mekler. (In Noticias de la Oficina de Información Obrera y Social, Unión Panamericana, Washington 6, May 1944, pp. 1-9.)

The author presents some findings from her compilation (139 pp., mimeographed; Pan American Union, Washington, 1943) of cost-of-living indexes for various years through 1942, and discusses six reasons for the present high cost of living in the Americas.

Education and Training

Pre-employment trainees and war production: A report of a follow-up survey of persons receiving instruction in pre-employment vocational training courses for war production workers. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1943. 88 pp., charts. (Vocational Division bull. No. 224; Defense training series No. 2.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

A study of the background and work experience of war production trainees in Maine, 1940-43. By Clarence C. Robinson. Augusta, Me., State Department of Education, [1943?]. 25 pp.; mimeographed.

Training in industry—a bibliography. Simsbury, Conn., Ensign-Bickford Co., Industrial Relations Department, 1943. 22 pp. 75 cents.

Transportation training. Washington 25, U. S. Office of Defense Transportation, Division of Transport Personnel, November 1943. 36 pp.; mimeographed.

Describes training programs that have proved successful in several branches of the transportation industry and also methods of recruiting workers.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries.

Vocational training problems when the war ends. By J. C. Wright. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1943. 40 pp., charts. (Vocational Division leaflet No. 12.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

O moderno ensino industrial brasileiro. By Francisco Martins dos Santos. (In Revista do Serviço Público, Departamento Administrativo do Serviço Público, Rio de Janeiro, October 1943, pp. 46-56; illus.)

Brief history of vocational education in Brazil, including references to Federal legislation and that of the state of São Paulo, and a detailed account of the Industrial School of Santos, showing admission requirements, type of instruction, provision for welfare of the students, etc.

Employment and Unemployment

Jobs after the war. By E. A. Goldenweiser and Everett E. Hagen. (In Federal Reserve Bulletin, Washington 25, May 1944, pp. 424-431; charts. 20 cents.)

Discussion of the post-war level of production that will be necessary if large-scale unemployment is to be avoided.

The means to full employment. By G. D. H. Cole. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1943. 175 pp.

The author proposes the centering of necessary governmental intervention in Great Britain on key industries and services, particularly those that are described as "capital-goods-producing" and "capital-goods-using" industries. His purpose in the book was to describe the minimum changes in the existing economic order that will be needed for full employment, full production, and a high standard of living for all classes. One chapter deals with international aspects.

The underwriting of aggregate consumer spending as a pillar of full-employment policy. By John H. G. Pierson. (In American Economic Review, Washington 6, 722 Jackson Place NW., March 1944, pp. 21-55. \$1.25.)

Unfinished business: A fair employment practice handbook. Detroit 26, Metropolitan Detroit Council on Fair Employment Practice, 1944. 24 pp.

Prepared as a brief guide to meet the increasing demand for information on the problem of minorities in employment. Includes a brief history and an outline of the program of the agency issuing the pamphlet.

Consideraciones sobre el paro obrero. By Esteban Pérez González. (In Revista de Trabajo, Ministerio de Trabajo, Madrid, April 1942, pp. 331-340.)

Means taken to relieve unemployment from ancient times to the present are discussed, after which unemployment relief in various countries is treated under measures taken, such as public works; colonization; aid to private activities; reduction of working hours; restrictions on employment because of age, sex, or nationality; and vocational education, with references to Spanish legislation on these measures.

Food and Nutrition

Food and the people. By Sir John Boyd Orr. London, Pilot Press, Ltd., 1943. 56 pp., charts, illus. (Target for tomorrow, No. 3.) 3s. 6d., net.

Considers post-war plans for providing adequate nutrition.

Food for people. By Margaret G. Reid. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1943. 653 pp. \$4.

The first part of this book deals with the food problem in the United States and means to secure better diets; the three other parts deal, respectively, with food production, food consumption, and social policy and food consumption.

Have we food enough for all? By F. F. Hill and F. A. Harper. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1944. 39 pp., bibliography, diagrams. (Public affairs pamphlet No. 89.) 10 cents.

The authors conclude that if the American people will eat less meat we can take care of our share of the war and post-war needs of the world without being deprived of adequate nourishment.

A brief review of food and nutrition in five countries. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Agriculture, War Food Administration, 1944. 28 pp.

Contains addresses of five delegates to the United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture, held at Hot Springs, Va., in 1943, on food problems in their countries. The countries covered are Mexico, Egypt, Belgium, China, and India.

Housing

Good shelter for everyone. Washington, Congress of Industrial Organizations, [1944]. 24 pp. (Publication No. 103.) 10 cents.

Reviews the general housing problem and outlines a preparatory program for wartime and a long-term program for reconversion and post-war periods.

Memorandum on post-war urban housing. Detroit, International Union, United Automobile, Aircraft, and Agricultural Implement Workers of America (UAW-CIO), 1944. 121 pp. 25 cents.

Recommends lower mortgage rates, planned communities, and public assistance to housing.

The Pittsburgh Housing Authority. By M. Nelson McGeary. State College, Pa., 1943. 86 pp. (Pennsylvania State College studies, No. 14.)

Traces the development of the agency from the adoption of public-housing legislation in 1937 through to the operation of housing projects.

Algunas consideraciones sobre la vivienda obrera en Argentina. By Juan Justo Dassen. (In Boletín del Museo Social Argentino, Buenos Aires, January-February 1944, pp. 3-15.)

Discusses the unsatisfactory housing conditions of workers in Argentina, lists certain public and private offices and organizations which have carried out housing projects, and describes the work of the Argentine National Low-Cost Housing Commission through 1942.

Industrial Accidents and Accident Prevention

Accident-record manual for industrial plants. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 18 pp. (Bull. No. 772.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Suggests simple methods of recording industrial accidents and points out the uses that can be made of accident statistics in the prevention of accidents.

Basic safety and health requirements for establishments subject to Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, 1943. 12 pp. Free.

Distribution of safety equipment by major consuming industries, 1943. Washington 25, U. S. War Production Board, Safety and Technical Equipment Division, 1944. 7 pp. and 13 charts. Free.

Foremanship and accident prevention in industry. Boston, Mass., American Mutual Liability Insurance Co., Engineering Department, 1943. 94 pp., illus. 35 cents.

Fatal industrial accidents in Canada, 1943, analyzed according to industries, causes, localities, and months; Fatal and nonfatal accidents in Canada, [1937-43], reported by Provincial workmen's compensation boards. (In Labor Gazette, Department of Labor, Ottawa, March 1944, pp. 421-431.)

Injuries and accident causes in the longshore industry, [United States], 1942. By Frank S. McElroy and George R. McCormack. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 53 pp. (Bull. No. 764; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, January 1944, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Industrial Relations

Extent of collective bargaining and union status, January 1944. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 9 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 776; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, April 1944.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Seniority in the automobile industry, April 1944. By Jonas Silver and Everett Kassalow. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 29 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Survey of the application of seniority under union agreements in the automobile industry, based principally on data obtained from interviews with management and labor officials in Detroit and Flint, Mich. Lay-off and rehiring, transfer, upgrading and promotion, as well as the seniority problems of women, servicemen, Negroes, and skilled-trades workers under peace and war production, are described for several plants.

Suggested standards for union-contract provisions affecting women. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1944. 4 pp. Free.

Victory without strike: The story of the Transport Workers Union victory on the New York City Transit System—without a strike. By Douglas L. MacMahon. New York, Transport Workers Union, C. I. O., 1943. 32 pp., illus.

Strikes and lockouts in Canada during 1943. (In Labor Gazette, Department of Labor, Ottawa, March 1944, pp. 315-353; charts. Also reprinted.)

Industrial disputes [in Ireland]—statistical survey for four years, 1940-1943. (In Irish Trade Journal and Statistical Bulletin, Department of Industry and Commerce, Dublin, March 1944, pp. 31-33.)

Industry Reports

Coal in 1943—practical problems. London, Labor Research Department, 1943. 40 pp. 6d.

An examination of the working out of the British Government's policy with respect to the coal industry. Subjects covered include control measures, manpower, wages, absenteeism, medical service for the workers, and production committees.

Post-war capacity and characteristics of the construction industry, [United States]. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 28 pp. (Bull. No. 779.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Iron and steel in Britain, 1870-1930: A comparative study of the causes which limited the economic development of the British iron and steel industry between the years 1870 and 1930. By T. H. Burnham and G. O. Hoskins. London, Geo. Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1943. 352 pp. 25s.

Contains information on the productivity of workers, wages, working hours, unemployment, and trade-unions.

The mining industries, 1899-1939: A study of output, employment, and productivity. By Harold Barger and Sam H. Schurr. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1944. 447 pp., charts. (Publication No. 43.) \$3.

One of a series of studies by the National Bureau of Economic Research dealing with the trends of production and productivity in industries of the United States. The study gives estimates of output, employment, and productivity for various mining industries separately. Technological changes are described and the relationships of productivity, technological changes, and changes in resource conditions are described. The final chapter summarizes the study and attempts to relate the data to broad questions of economic theory and policy.

Railway traffic expansion and use of resources in World War II. By Thor Hultgren. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1944. 31 pp., charts. (Our economy in war, Occasional paper 15.) 35 cents.

The author discusses the increase in efficiency of railroad transportation in the United States as measured by comparative changes in traffic, in equipment used, and in the number of workers employed, to the middle of 1943.

La industria de cerveza y gaseosas en Puerto Rico. San Juan, Junta de Salario Mínimo, División de Investigaciones y Estadísticas, 1943. 39 pp.; mimeographed.

This report of an official investigation of the beer and soft-drink industries in Puerto Rico contains data for 1942 on cost of production, employment, average hours worked per week, hourly wage rates and weekly earnings, family income and cost of living, and unions of workers. There also are tabulations showing employment, weekly working hours, and earnings in these industries, and in manufacturing as a whole, for each year from 1937 to 1942.

The sugarcane industry in Puerto Rico. San Juan, Minimum Wage Board, 1943. 215 pp., charts.

Contains considerable information on employment, wages, and living conditions of workers in the sugar industry of Puerto Rico in 1942 or earlier years.

Labor and Social Legislation

A study of recent labor legislation. By Joseph C. Owens. (In *Illinois Law Review*, Chicago, January-February 1944, pp. 309-320.)

An examination of recent State laws dealing with labor's right to strike and picket, with the requirement of a State license to carry on union functions, and with the regulation of internal affairs of labor unions. The author notes that to secure the enactment of this legislation its proponents "have capitalized on the universal desire to bring the war to a speedy and successful conclusion."

A symposium on constitutional rights in wartime. (In *Iowa Law Review*, Iowa City, March 1944, pp. 379-480. \$1.)

Series of articles dealing with different phases of the subject of constitutional rights in wartime. These phases include such items as judicial protection of civil rights, alien enemy control, and wartime priority control over food.

El derecho a la estabilidad en el empleo. By Mario L. Deveali. (In *Derecho del Trabajo*, Buenos Aires, January 1944, pp. 5-16.)

Examines the legal basis for security of both public and private employment, and the extent of legal causes of dismissal and penalties for illegal dismissal, in Argentina, Cuba, and Mexico, and compares Argentine dismissal legislation with that of Mexico, Cuba, and Brazil. Argentine laws relating to security of employment are listed and court decisions based on such laws are discussed briefly.

Ordenamiento de las leyes obreras argentinas. Compiled by Alejandro M. Unsain. Buenos Aires, Editorial Losada, S. A., 1943. 106 pp. (Academia de Ciencias Económicas, Ediciones especiales, No. 2.)

Compilation (with notes) of texts of 45 Argentine labor laws enacted from 1905 through November 27, 1943.

El fuero del trabajo en la realidad española: Cinco años de labor. (In *Revista de Trabajo*, Ministerio de Trabajo, Madrid, January 1944, pp. 13-18.)

Shows the most important legislation enacted in Spain since the promulgation of the Labor Charter in 1938 (see *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1940, p. 592) to put into effect the principles enunciated in the Charter. Some statistics of the operation in 1942 of the various new laws are presented.

Labor Organizations and Activities

Growth of a union: The life and times of Edward Flore. By Jay Rubin and M. J. Obermeier. New York, Historical Union Association, Inc., 1943. 320 pp., illus.

Against the economic background of the last half century, the history of the Hotel and Restaurant Employees' International Alliance and Bartenders' International League of America, A. F. of L., is developed through the biography of Edward Flore, its president for 33 years and vice-president of the A. F. of L. for 8 years.

The headwear workers: A century of trade unionism. By Charles H. Green. New York, United Hatters, Cap and Millinery Workers International Union, 1944. 254 pp.

Traces the development of two of the oldest unions in the American labor movement from their earliest efforts at organization through their merger in 1934, which put an end to their jurisdictional disputes and rivalries. The book also gives a vivid historical account of conditions in the men's and women's hat trades.

Labor's aims in war and peace. By Amy Hewes. New York 18, Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, 1944. 24 pp. 10 cents.

The Australian labor movement. By C. Hartley Grattan. (In *Antioch Review*, Yellow Springs, Ohio, Vol. 4, No. 1, spring 1944, pp. 56-73. 75 cents.)

Shows the development of the labor movement and its political history.

Memoria y balance a considerar por el primer congreso ordinario [de la] Unión General de Trabajadores del Uruguay, correspondiente al ejercicio 1942-1944. Montevideo, Unión General de Trabajadores del Uruguay, 1944. 62 pp.

Report of the General Union of Workers of Uruguay for the period March 1942 to March 1944, covering, among other matters, the Union's efforts for improvement of wages; lowering of the cost of living; reform of land tenure for the benefit of workers; enactment of legislation concerning wages, retirement, paid vacations, accident compensation, family allowances, etc.; and relations of the Union with the Confederation of Latin American Workers, labor organizations of other countries, and the International Labor Office.

Occupations

Informational manual on industrial job evaluation systems. Washington 25, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Manpower Utilization, Division of Occupational Analysis and Manning Tables, 1943. 28 pp. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Occupations for girls and women in wartime—selected references. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, October 1943. 17 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Occupations today. By John M. Brewer and Edward Landy. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1943. 377 pp., bibliography, illus. \$1.64.

The first part of the book deals with the pupil and his relationship with school and work; the second part is a comprehensive study of occupations; the third part treats of the immediate and long-range problems of the pupil in seeking successful occupational adjustment; and the last section attempts to give the pupil a true perspective of his place as an individual, his relationship to others, and the need for cooperation in occupational life.

Sixteenth census of the United States, 1940—Population: Comparative occupation statistics for the United States, 1870 to 1940. By Alba M. Edwards. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1943. 206 pp., charts. \$1.50, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

An effort by the Bureau of the Census to fill the gaps and to smooth out the irregularities in its occupation statistics for the period from 1870 to 1940 and thus to aid in the study of occupational and industrial trends. The various occupational censuses differed in scope, in methods of enumeration, in the processing of the returns, and in the presentation of the resulting statistics. One of the problems dealt with was the adjustment of the earlier gainful-worker statistics to the 1940 labor-force statistics for comparability of data collected in accord with the two concepts. Part III contains a classification of the workers of the 1940 labor force into social-economic groups, and comparable series for the four census years 1910, 1920, 1930, and 1940.

Natural gas distribution job classifications. Prepared by Southwest Personnel Conference, American Gas Association. New York, American Gas Association, 1943. 122 pp. \$1.

Old-Age Problems

New goals for old age. Edited by George Lawton. New York, Columbia University Press, 1943. 210 pp., bibliography. \$2.75.

Collection of papers, by experts in various fields, dealing with old-age problems. Many of these perplexities are concerned with economic conditions, including the employment potentialities of persons past their middle years. Some of the comments on the ageing process are given on page 36 of this issue.

Old age in New York City: An analysis of some problems of the aged, based on 3,106 requests for information about health and welfare services. By Helen Hardy Brunot. New York 10, Welfare Council of New York City, 1943. 128 pp., pasters. \$1.50.

Prepared from records of the Bureau for the Aged of the Welfare Council of New York City. One chapter is devoted to the problem of support.

Pensions

Practical pension planning. (Journal of Commerce, second section, New York, May 15, 1944, 59 pp.)

Presents articles on general aspects of planning employees' pensions, describes different types of plans, and discusses financial, legal, and related questions.

The scope of protection under State and local government retirement systems. By Dorothy F. McCamman. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1943. 150 pp., charts; mimeographed. (Bureau report No. 12.)

The Railwaymen's Pension and Retirement Fund of Argentina. By Robert C. Jones. Washington, Pan American Union, Division of Labor and Social Information, 1944. 15 pp.; mimeographed. 10 cents.

Reviews the legislative history of the fund and summarizes provisions concerning administration, membership, contributions, benefits, and special personal and housing loans of the fund. Trends toward an inclusive social-security system in Argentina are discussed.

Personnel and Industrial Management

Human aspects of multiple shift operations. By Paul and Faith Pigors. Cambridge, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Department of Economics and Social Science, 1944. 90 pp., bibliography, charts. (Series 2, Industrial relations, No. 13.) 75 cents.

The object of the study was to obtain information as to the feelings of workers, union officials, group leaders, and foremen about the human problems of multiple-shift operation, and interviewing was therefore largely confined to representatives of these groups. Multiple shifts require departures from normal habits, and the central questions to which answers were sought related to the effects of work schedules in disarranging a worker's pattern of life. It is urged that employers base their schedules on knowledge of the points of view of workers and that shift arrangements be included among the problems to be handled by joint labor-management conferences.

Outline of industrial welfare and personnel management. London, Industrial Welfare Society, Inc., 1944. 16 pp. 1s.

Handbook intended to provide basic information on the organization of welfare and personnel work. Cites the operation of actual welfare and personnel departments.

Personnel management in relation to factory organization. By L. Urwick. Aldwych, Institute of Labor Management, 1943. 27 pp. 1s.

Describes the scope of modern personnel management, difficulties in integrating the work, the place of the personnel officer in industrial relations, and the relationship between personnel units and other departments.

Personnel management in war industries, Volume II. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, Bureau of Industrial Relations, 1944. 148 pp. (Bull. No. 15.)

Summaries of discussions at 12 conferences on various phases of personnel management in the munitions industries, held in Detroit during 1943.

Principles and application of job evaluation. New York 17, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1944. 28 pp. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 62.)

Management in Russian industry and agriculture. By Gregory Bienstock, Solomon M. Schwartz, Aaron Yugow. New York, Oxford University Press, 1944. 198 pp. \$3.

Detailed study of the development, structure, and functions of management in Soviet industry and agriculture. The authors point out that after 1934 managers had acquired larger responsibilities and greater authority in the operation of their plants. Chapters are devoted to descriptions of the relationship between management and employees, wage incentives, and private vs. cooperative interests.

Post-War Reconstruction

Demobilization of manpower, 1918-19: Part 1, Plans for returning soldiers to civil life; Part 2, Early phases of demobilization. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 14 and 13 pp. (Serial Nos. R. 1636 and 1644; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, March and April 1944.) Free.

Post-war planning (basic information sources.) Washington 25, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1943. 23 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Lists governmental and nongovernmental sources.

Post-war program, American Federation of Labor. Washington, American Federation of Labor, 1944. 26 pp.

Program relating to both international and domestic policies, prepared by the committee on post-war planning and approved by the executive council of the Federation. It is stated that the program deals only with immediate plans and that additional recommendations will be made from time to time.

A New Jersey program for the post-war period: First report of the State Commission on Post-war Economic Welfare. Trenton, 1944. 141 pp., chart.

Includes information on the general background of the proposals of the New Jersey State Commission on Post-war Economic Welfare, a detailed statement of legislative action deemed appropriate at the present time, and selected staff memoranda that have been important in the Commission's work.

A statistical summary of the Providence area, Providence County, Rhode Island: Statistical data on war and pre-war employment and industry for use by local groups formulating plans for the post-war period. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1944. 13 pp., charts; mimeographed. (Industrial area statistical summary No. 13.) Free.

Other reports recently made available in this series deal with the Dallas-Fort Worth area, Dallas and Tarrant counties, Texas; the Childersburg area, Talladega County, Ala.; and the Birmingham area, Jefferson County, Ala. (Industrial area statistical summaries Nos. 8, 10, and 11).

Interim report of the Post-war Rehabilitation Council, [British Columbia]. Victoria 1943. 205 pp. Appendix, 1943, 422 pp., maps; Supplementary report, 1944, 122 and 41 pp., map.

A summary of the recommendations made in these reports has been published by the Council in a separate pamphlet (1944, 42 pp.).

What will I do when the war is won? Provisions already made and plans under way for the re-establishment of Canadian service personnel in civil life. Ottawa, Department of Pensions and National Health, 1943. 32 pp.

The next Germany. By a group of anti-Nazi Germans. New York, Penguin Books, 1943. 144 pp.

The authors, a small group of Germans who grew up in the German labor movement and are now in Great Britain, discuss the internal German problems with which the Allies will be faced in their ultimate task of integrating Germany with Europe and thus laying one of the foundations of a permanent peace.

Prices, Price Control, and Rationing

Eighth report of the [U. S.] Office of Price Administration, covering the period ended December 31, 1943. Washington 25, 1944. 71 pp., charts. (House doc. No. 542, 78th Cong., 2d sess.)

Index numbers of prices received by farmers, 1910-43. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1944. 36 pp., charts; processed.

Contains a discussion of the basic information and the methods used in constructing index numbers as well as the revised index numbers for important types of products, major groups, and all products combined.

Canada's financial system in war. By Benjamin H. Higgins. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1944. 82 pp., charts. (Our economy in war, Occasional paper No. 19.) 50 cents.

A section deals with control of prices and production and shows the role of subsidies in holding down prices.

The 1943-1944 clothing quiz. London, Board of Trade, [1943]. 35 pp. 2d. net. Questions and answers on clothing rationing in Great Britain and tables showing the cost of different articles in ration points.

War-time price control in New Zealand. By H. L. Wise. Melbourne, Whitcombe & Tombs, Ltd., [1943?]. 79 pp.

States the general objectives and methods of price control, and describes the wartime control measures adopted in New Zealand to secure stabilization of prices and wages.

Production and Labor Productivity

Production of industrial materials in World Wars I and II. By Geoffrey H. Moore. New York 23, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1944. 81 pp., charts. (Our economy in war, Occasional paper No. 18.) 50 cents.

It is stated that the increase in the output of industrial materials during World War II has been only slightly more rapid than the increase in the corresponding period of World War I. The study includes a discussion of the problems of measuring industrial production, especially in wartime. The author believes that the difficulties of measuring total industrial production during the period of conversion to war production or of reconversion to peace production are so great that it seems best to introduce a wartime index that begins after industry is converted and ends when reconversion becomes important. The discussion has a significant bearing on such problems as the measurement of labor productivity.

Productivity in agriculture, 1909-42. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 7 pp. (Serial No. R. 1626; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, March 1944.) Free.

Productivity and unit labor cost in selected manufacturing industries, 1939-43. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 11 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Productivity and unit labor cost in selected mining industries, 1935-43. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 9 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

British joint production machinery. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1944. 273 pp. (Studies and reports, Series A, No. 43.) \$1.25.

The study consists of three parts describing consultation at the national, regional and district, and plant levels, respectively. Conclusions are drawn for each level and for the production machinery as a whole.

Guide upon the functions of joint workshop production committees: Engineering-munitions. Glasgow, Scottish Trades Union Congress, General Council, 1943. 8 pp. 3d.

Brief summary giving the composition and procedures of joint production committees and listing the matters with which they should and should not deal.

Wages, Salaries, and Hours of Labor

Earnings of bank employees, spring and summer of 1943. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 12 pp. (Bull. No. 774; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, April 1944, with additional data.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Union wages and hours in the building trades, July 1, 1943. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 67 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 767; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, January 1944, with additional data.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Wages in the nonferrous-metals industry, June 1943. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 32 pp. (Bull. No. 765; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, November and December 1943, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Wages and profits in the paper industry, 1929-1939. By W. Rupert MacLauria. (In Quarterly Journal of Economics, Cambridge, Mass., February 1944, pp. 196-228; charts. \$1.25.)

This study, based on data obtained from a sample of paper mills, was undertaken as part of a broad program of investigation of the labor market by the Industrial Relations Section of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The author's conclusions reflect doubts as to the validity of certain widely accepted views of the factors controlling wages and profits, particularly the maximising of profits as the dominant motive of employers.

Prevailing wages and hours of 5,703 employees in clerical and sales and kindred occupations, in Honolulu, Hawaii (October-November-December 1943). Honolulu, Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Bureau of Research and Statistics, [1944?]. 25 pp.; mimeographed. (Bull. No. 13.)

Annual report of the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, United States Department of Labor, for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1943. New York 19 (165 West 46th Street), 1944. 41 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Covers fair labor standards in wartime, enforcement of wage and hour legislation, and exemptions from maximum-hour and minimum-wage provisions.

Wage regulation in postwar America. By George W. Taylor, National War Labor Board. (In American Economic Review, Washington 6, 722 Jackson Place NW., March 1944, part 2 (supplement), pp. 181-192. \$1.25.)

Consideration of post-war wage policies, the writer believes, should be based on an understanding of wartime wage regulations, with which his paper primarily deals.

Youth Problems

And so to work. Edited by Betty Lyle. New York, Womans Press, 1943. 53 pp. 35 cents.

Discusses jobs for girls, the right worker for the job, labor unions and the young worker, relaxation, rest, recreation, healthful food habits, and other subjects.

Final report of the National Youth Administration, fiscal years 1936-1943. Washington 25, U. S. War Manpower Commission, 1944. 269 pp.

Our young folks. By Dorothy Canfield Fisher. New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1943. 329 pp., charts. \$2.75.

This book presents the author's personal impressions and factual material based largely on the findings of the American Youth Commission, of which she was a member. In it she discusses the puzzling forces at work, personality and aptitude tests, the need of young people for work experience, paid work for students, education for worthwhile use of free hours, and other matters.

Post-war youth employment—a study of long-term trends. Prepared by Paul T. David for American Youth Commission. Washington, American Council on Education, 1943. 177 pp., maps, charts. \$2.

Analysis of some of the population and economic trends that have affected the employment of young persons in the past and which seem likely to affect it in the future. The exigencies of war have temporarily, but perhaps not fundamentally, reversed some of these trends, in the opinion of the author, who feels, however, that a better understanding of them cannot but be helpful even now and is a requisite for an intelligent consideration of things to come.

Disinherited youth: A report on the 18+ age group inquiry prepared for the trustees of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. By C. Cameron and others. Edinburgh, T. & A. Constable, Ltd., 1943. 127 pp.

Presents the findings of a survey of the Glasgow, Liverpool, and Cardiff areas, beginning in 1937 and closing in April 1939, on the social situation of males between 18 and 25 years of age, especially industrial workers.

